

## THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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### A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

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#### UNIVERSITY INSPECTION OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND THE SCHOOLS EXAMINATION BOARD OF HARVARD UNIVERSITY

Hitherto the universities and colleges of the country have shown little direct interest in the aims and methods of secondary education. Such coöperation as the colleges offered has concentrated attention upon the college admission requirements to the neglect of other important considerations. For generations the colleges have made their entrance requirements and the schools have met them, in accordance with a tacit understanding that this arrangement was proper and desirable. But there the direct influence of the colleges on the schools ceased. Indeed the secondary schools, generally speaking, have for a long time cherished the conviction that any interest in secondary education shown by the colleges could have no other direct aim than a proposed modification of college preparatory courses or of existing plans for admission to college in the interests of the colleges themselves. This conviction is on the whole just; for it is evident enough that most of the attempts at closer affiliation of colleges and secondary schools hitherto proposed by the colleges have not aimed directly at the improvement of secondary education as such, but at the elevation of the colleges through such improvements in the secondary schools as the successful operation of the various plans for admission to college, viz., by examinations, by diplomas, or by certificates from accredited schools might bring about.

Of these three plans the examinations have been most effective in producing a real coöperation in the interests of secondary edu-

cation. But there are different kinds of examinations. When the demands of an examination can be satisfied quantitatively only, or when the demands of the examination can be satisfied by skilful coaching without skilful teaching, it is evident that the coöperation of colleges and secondary schools promoted by such examinations necessarily affects favorably only the range of the subjects taught and the extent to which each subject required by the college is pursued, but does not necessarily affect favorably the teaching of those subjects and the general tone of the school. On the other hand when examinations are so planned as to test the quality as well as the quantity of the results of school work the school necessarily coöperates with the college in the interests of secondary education so far at least as the subjects required by the colleges are concerned. Even such examinations, however, have sometimes been regarded by the schools as an obstruction to be evaded and not as a means of guiding teachers and pupils to do better work. In such cases there is no real coöperation in the interests of education: true educational interests are sacrificed by such schools in systematic efforts to overcome the obstacle set up by the college with the least expenditure of force by school and pupil.

Again, neither admission by diplomas nor admission by certificates from accredited schools is well adapted to promote any real coöperation between colleges and secondary schools in promoting the interests of secondary education. Theoretically this statement does not apply to the diploma plan, for in this plan the inspection of a school by one or more officers of the university involves the actual presence of the university officers at the school, and this always implies a degree of coöperation in the interests of the school itself. But the large number of schools accredited to the universities that have adopted the diploma plan of admission, and the distance of many of those schools from the universities themselves have often, especially in recent times, reduced actual inspection to the visit of a single officer making a comparatively brief stay. Under such circumstances there can be little real coöperation for the improvement of the school itself except—once more—as regards the range of the course of study and the extent to which each subject is pursued, both determined, however, by the college admission requirements. Further,

the actual inspection of a school has not always been a necessary part of this diploma plan of admission to college. At least two respectable universities (one of them a large and influential institution) are known by me to have accepted the diplomas of graduates of high schools without any approach to an inspection of the schools concerned. This extension of the diploma plan is not uncommon in some portions of the country, and it then does not differ materially from the certificate plan of admitting students to college. This latter plan, indeed, makes no pretensions to influencing the secondary schools except in relation to the college admission requirements.

It is well known how widely American colleges and universities have adopted the practice of establishing accredited secondary schools, either by the diploma or by the certificate plan; and it is evident that with this great extension of the plan of accredited schools, the influence of the higher institutions on the secondary schools has become less and less direct, and that under it anything like real coöperation between colleges and secondary schools does not exist, except in the particulars already mentioned more than once, namely that the accredited schools do, in most instances, organize their courses of study so as to satisfy quantitatively the requirements of the institutions to which they are accredited.

Different, in important respects, is the aim of the affiliation of colleges and secondary schools promoted by such organizations as the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools and the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle states and Maryland. The New England association has naturally paid much attention to college admission requirements and no doubt it always will. But the avowed aim of the association is "the advancement of the cause of liberal education by the promotion of interests common to colleges and preparatory schools." But even this association, as its name implies, regards the secondary schools in the first instance as "preparatory schools," and only secondly as in a sense independent educational institutions with a distinct sphere of activity peculiar to themselves. Moreover, the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, though effective in bringing about a real coöperation of the two educational forces concerned, necessarily deals with general considerations whose main influence like the other

plans of coöperation already discussed is only felt, if at all, in the aims and organization of the schools rather than in their work. The association can have little direct influence on the schools, and often its influence does not reach the schools at all. That this must be true will be apparent when one remembers that many schools are not represented at all or with little regularity in the meetings of the association, that the meetings cannot be attended by many teachers not principals, and that the admirable proceedings of the association, though printed each year, are in all probability not read by many of those who would be especially benefitted. American secondary school teachers are not, as a rule, much addicted to reading professional literature, even the best.

It thus appears, as was stated at the outset, that the main influence of such coöperation as has existed heretofore between the colleges and secondary schools has concentrated attention on college admission requirements, and further, that while such influence has usually been of value in enriching the course of study in secondary schools, it has had more direct reference to the pupil's career in college than to his work in school. On the other hand, increased attention to college admission requirements has sometimes been positively harmful, by leading a school to work chiefly in the interests of the few pupils who were going to college to the disadvantage of the majority, or by transforming it into an institution which merely prepares pupils to meet the college entrance requirements without any thought of the educational value of the subjects taught or of the methods employed. Finally, none of the plans of coöperation proposed thus far have carried the influence of the colleges into individual schools in the most effective way, *i. e.* so as to make the schools self-critical in respect to their aims and methods and conscious of their separate educational responsibilities.

This brings me to the real topic which I am to discuss, namely, university inspection or examination of secondary schools irrespective of college admission requirements; an examination covering the organization, aims, and actual work of each school examined, and intended to ascertain the merits and defects of the school as an educational institution; so that, possessing the necessary information, the university may, by criticism and suggestion, coöperate with the school in its efforts after improvement.



A little while ago I said that the secondary schools had become convinced that any proposal from the colleges, whatever its apparent aim, could only bear on the question of college admission requirements. That does not state the whole truth. Not only have the schools firmly held the opinion just stated, but many of them do not see how any possible advantage could arise from an inspection or examination by officers of the university which did not directly affect the admission to college of graduates of the inspected schools. When the schools examination board of Harvard university was established, and correspondents were told that the proposed inspections (called examinations) of schools under the direction of this board had nothing to do with college admission requirements, or with plans of getting their pupils into college, many of them in astonishment simply said *cui bono?* and became indifferent. University inspection was regarded by such schools as a luxury that might be harmless, if indulged in moderately, but not as a plan of coöperation that could really bring the resources of the university to bear on the secondary schools in an important and useful way. It took a little time for the schools to realize that the plan proposed concerned itself primarily with the interests of secondary education as such, and only incidentally with preparation for college; that is, that the aim throughout is to serve the best interests of the pupils themselves. (Is it not strange, by the way, that we have come to speak of preparation for college, and of secondary education as if they were two distinct kinds of education? We say of the high school that it "fits for life" and that it also "fits for college." We began to use such expressions when the only road to college was by way of the classics; and we have finished by separating in thought and sometimes in practice two ideas between which there is no valid distinction. For, whether a youth studies classics and mathematics, or science and modern languages, he is inevitably preparing for life, or missing such preparation, as the case may be, whether he goes to college or not.)

The schools examination board of Harvard university was established a little more than a year ago.\* The board comprises

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\* These paragraphs describing the organization and work of the schools examination board follow very closely the circular of the board published by the university.

representatives from both the secondary schools and the university, and consists of the president, four professors, and two principals of secondary schools. Under the direction of this board any school, public, endowed, or private, of a grade to prepare boys for Harvard college or the Lawrence Scientific school, is, on request, thoroughly examined. An examination may cover the entire work of a school, or only the work in a department or departments, specified in the application for an examination. Examinations are invited by the master of a public school, with the approval of the superintendent, if there be any; by the master or principal of an endowed school or academy, with the approval of some appropriate officer of the board of trustees; and by the master of a private school.

When a school invites an examination, the university is thereby asked to give to the school a friendly criticism of its aims, organization, equipment, and work. Inasmuch as the distribution of the work among the teachers—whether by the departments or otherwise—the order and distribution of the subjects in the course of study, the discipline, and the general tone of the school, have much to do with the efficiency of a school, these matters, as well as the work, in detail, of each department, are carefully considered in each examination.

To make a complete examination of a school which has a comprehensive programme of studies, six examiners are ordinarily required—one for each of the following subjects: classics, mathematics, natural science, history, English, and other modern languages. Sometimes a school, in its application, asks specifically for an examination into its organization. In that case an examiner may be appointed to consider especially that feature of the school. If the number of pupils be large, assistants for the principal examiners are also required. The examinations in the different departments are not usually simultaneous, although two examiners may sometimes visit a school on the same days. Ordinarily, not less than two days at a school are required by each examiner. When requested, the board states beforehand how many examiners and assistants will be needed for either a partial or a complete examination. Each examiner makes a complete report, in writing, to the board, and, on the basis of these reports, a confidential report is made by the board to the master or prin-

principal of the school examined. By agreement, this report must not be published by either party. It may, however, be used confidentially in the university committees on admission, in the board of trustees of an endowed school or academy, and by the superintendent of schools, if there be any, in the case of a public school. No report or record is made of the attainments of individual pupils.

Since the object of an examination is to subject the aims, the organization, the equipment, and the efficiency of a school to thorough scrutiny and frank discussion, the examination can not be exclusively nor especially directed to ascertaining the attainments of the pupils. It does not, therefore, consist chiefly of written or oral tests to which the pupils are subjected, although such tests may enter into the examination, at the discretion of the examiner. The application, to pupils, of such tests would not require the presence of the examiner in person. In accordance with the intentions of the schools examinations board, each examiner goes to ascertain, by personal inspection, the range and quality of the instruction, and the use made of library, laboratories, apparatus, text, and reference books; to note the methods of teaching and the habits of the classes; to catch the spirit of the place, to feel its influence, and to judge of the effect of that influence, in shaping the intellectual habits and the characters of the pupils. Such an examination accordingly covers the teachers as well as the pupils. The examinations may or may not cover methods of discipline outside of the school-rooms, and they do not cover religious instruction, sanitary condition, or arrangements for boarding and lodging pupils. The cost of an examination depends on whether a complete or a partial examination is asked for, and also on the distance of the school from the university.

The method of an examination is, in substance, as follows: In his instructions from the board, each examiner is informed that while it is expected that the examination of a school will be searching, it is also expected that it will be conducted in the most friendly and helpful spirit: further that he is expected to inform himself beforehand concerning the course of study and daily programme of the school so far as they relate to his own subject. At the school each examiner is expected to confer with the principal,

and, through the principal, to make himself known to all the teachers directly affected by his visit. He is expected, in all cases, to observe the ordinary work of the school (teaching, examining, experimenting, etc.) in progress; he may also, in his discretion with the concurrence of the principal and teachers, examine pupils or classes orally.

A satisfactory amount of the written work which has been done in the ordinary routine of the school is examined, and examiners may also themselves propose questions to be answered by the pupils in writing. Such tests should not ordinarily require much time, and all mechanical details should be arranged by the teacher of the class.

Each examiner, if he thinks it necessary, may employ an assistant for the examination of written work. To save expense to the schools, it is recommended that this written work be examined in Cambridge.

Each examiner makes a full report to the board. This is a confidential report intended for the board alone, and covers:

1. The proportionate attention which the school gives to the examiner's subject, and its relative weight in determining a pupil's advancement.
2. The quality and range of the books used.
3. The equipment of the school as regards library, laboratories, and apparatus.
4. The scholarship and the professional training or experience of the teachers.
5. The aims and methods of the teachers.
6. The tests employed for teaching purposes or for promotion.
7. The general atmosphere of the school—whether kindly, inspiring, and refining, or otherwise.

On the basis of such examiners' reports the board makes its report to the school. A list of the schools examined, with the dates of the examinations and the departments in which they were examined, is printed in each successive annual catalogue of the university accompanied by the statement that this publication conveys no information in respect to the results of the examination.

Now what reasons may be given for the belief that such an examination may promote "the cause of liberal education" in secondary schools and colleges?

First: The inspections or examinations directed by the schools examination board are *disinterested in character*. Neither the university nor an inspected school can by the mutual agreement under which an examination takes place derive from the examination any kind of immediate popular approval. By the terms of this agreement the results of an examination are embodied in a confidential report to the master or principal of the school. As this report cannot be published by either party it is impossible to make capital out of it for any external advantage.

Second: The disinterested and confidential character of the examinations makes it possible for the school to subject itself to the examination without reserve and for the university to do its part with perfect frankness. The board through its examiners can therefore know the school just as it is. It is only on the basis of such a thorough knowledge of the school that any commendations or recommendations made by the board can have real value.

Third: This knowledge, on which the board bases its commendations and its recommendations, is obtained through several examiners for each school. Each of the examiners brings the resources of a specialist to bear on his examination. Moreover, since the examinations in different departments are seldom simultaneous, the examinations reveal the condition of the school as a whole and of its different departments at different times and under different circumstances. The conditions under which the board obtains its knowledge of a school are therefore conducive to accuracy and completeness, and tend to prevent, as perfectly as may be, the acceptance of merely temporary or accidental characteristics as essential features of the school.

Fourth: Such examinations usually lead to conferences sought by the principal and teachers during the examiner's visit or afterwards; and, in this way, the ideas of the university teachers are brought directly into the schools in an intimate and helpful way.

It may be said, in passing, that some schools were, at first, sceptical in regard to the capacity of college teachers to appreciate the merits and defects of secondary schools. No doubt such scepticism still exists, though the board has reason to believe

that the experience of the past year has lessened it. The efficiency of college men as examiners depends in part, no doubt, upon the fact that many of them have had experience as teachers in secondary schools.

Fifth: The inspection benefits the university as well as the schools. The university learns how much the secondary schools can do and do well to meet the college admission requirements, and how difficult it is in small schools to combine college and non-college preparatory courses. It thus learns the capabilities, needs, and difficulties of the secondary schools, and on the basis of the good mutual understanding which such knowledge promotes, both are better able to work together in the interests of a liberal education.

Sixth: Finally, such university inspection as I have described focuses the attention both of the university and the secondary schools examined on *educational aims*. It therefore guards against the tendency to make secondary education synonymous with preparation for college admission requirements, and converges the efforts of both school and college on the endeavor to define the aims of secondary education, and to find the means best adapted to accomplish those aims. No one will doubt the importance of just aims clearly conceived. Without such aims the work of a school is sure to lack definiteness and vigor.

Now is it going too far to say that the most common defect of the work of our secondary schools is its aimlessness, due to an inadequate conception of what should be done in secondary education and how it should be done? The educational horizon of most secondary school teachers is limited by the subjects they have to teach. Even the most conscientious among them usually regard themselves as "teachers of *subjects* instead of teachers of minds by means of subjects." The pupil's early education should have *opened* his mind; it should have made him receptive, and eager to extend his knowledge and to try his power in fresh fields; it should have exploited and developed many intellectual interests and should have begun the unification of these interests by making each of them many-sided. All this should lead to the beginning of a mental and moral stability, alertness, and vigor, the development of which it is the function of the secondary school to promote. The pupil's secondary education therefore begins before he enters the high school and continues throughout the

entire high school period. During that period the pupil should be led to find for himself what his tastes and capacities really are. This is the period of dawning and developing mental and moral self-consciousness—the period when the pupil should be gradually led to emancipate himself from intellectual and moral guidance and authority and to assume wisely the independent control of his own development, to determine intelligently his own future. This emancipation and self-revelation is the main function of secondary education, and on its fulfilment depends very largely the pupil's subsequent progress, happiness, and usefulness.

When a youth enters college the burden of deliberate choice—choice with reasons—is intentionally and repeatedly laid upon him. Without this reiterated choice with the consciousness of personal responsibility, there can be no real mental and moral development; there can be no approximation to that mental and moral stability, alertness, and vigor to which I referred a moment ago, and which is the final aim of all education. If a youth does not go to college, the duties of life inevitably thrust the burden of choice upon him at once and continually. With the completion of the period assigned to secondary education a youth should be prepared to choose deliberately: he should face the world with modesty, but with the consciousness of power to achieve and interest in achievement, and with the determination to become one who, while performing his private duties, and enjoying whatever leisure he may earn, is also to be a participator in the world's affairs, and to work with his fellow men for the continuous improvement and happiness of the race.

This interest in achievement, this consciousness of power, and this determination to contribute something, be it little or much, to the happiness and prosperity of the race, the university aims to extend, to deepen, and to strengthen. Is it not desirable that the university and the secondary schools should coöperate in the endeavor to attain such a consummation?

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## THE REPORTS ON SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDIES

The secondary-school teacher of to-day may well rejoice that his lot is cast in this last decade before the opening of the twentieth century. It is glorious to be living in a formative period and to have a part in influencing the changes that are impending. This is the happy privilege of every thoughtful teacher in the high school or academy or private preparatory school at the present time. Of course, this thought carries with it some criticism of secondary schools as they are.

Dr. Harris ventures to assert so much as this: "It has been agreed on all hands that the most defective part of the education in this country is that of secondary schools." To this I must respectfully demur. It would be difficult to find any representative body of secondary-school teachers who would so agree, and still more difficult to demonstrate such *superlative* defect. Yet it should be frankly confessed that secondary education *is* defective,—defective in organization, in methods, in equipment, and even in aims. These defects, however, are not its exclusive possession, nor its possession in larger degree than in the case of elementary education, on which it must be based, and in that of higher education, toward which it should lead. A truer view would declare that all education is as yet defective, because it is so largely empirical and tentative. The principles of the science, (or of the art, if any choose to aver that it is no science,) like those of political and social science, are still in formation. The very data for firm and accepted opinion are yet to be collected. In such a condition of things, that part of the educational field is the most hopeful upon which the attention of thoughtful men is most concentrated. Herein lies the special opportunity of the teacher of the secondary school to-day. The eye of the educational world is with unusual unanimity fixed on secondary education. In Germany, in France, in England, and more recently in America, it commands attention and interest as never before. Out of this will inevitably come an important advance, and every worker can contribute something to accelerate the movement. The iron is hot for the forging of new agencies, and even the feeblest blow, if intelligently directed, will make a definite and abiding impres-



sion. While, therefore, unwilling to agree that secondary education is more defective than other parts of the work, I cheerfully recognize its defects, and rejoice with all who find in the reports of the Committee of Ten and of the Conferences a positive promise of remedy for those deficiencies. Even more, I am ready to concur with Dr. Harris in his estimate of these reports as constituting in certain respects "the most important educational document ever published in this country."

There is one thing worth noting before we consider the reports themselves, and that is the method of the whole movement that produced them. The train of events of which this is the latest episode began with the formation of the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools in 1885, unless we care to trace it still farther back to an earlier conference between Harvard professors and preparatory teachers, which undoubtedly had much to do with the creation of a demand for that association. The happy results of the association, not only in producing harmony of feeling among teachers in school and teachers in college, but also, through the specific action of the Commission of Colleges in New England on Admission Examinations, in promoting practical uniformity in college requirements, has all along been raising hopes that similar conferences of the two classes of teachers interested, on a national scale, might do for the nation what the local body was doing for New England. In Ohio results of the same kind had already been accomplished before, in 1891, an attempt was made to organize such a national conference. At the National Council, held in connection with the National Educational Association at Toronto, the Committee on Secondary Education, through President (then Principal) James H. Baker, of Colorado, proposed the calling of a convention comprising representatives from a dozen colleges and a dozen high and preparatory schools, to discuss secondary problems. The proposition met with favor, and all the more favor because of the evident value of the Round Table Conference on Higher Education at the same meeting, a conference of professors and secondary-school teachers which spent no small share of its time on secondary problems, —especially on uniformity of college requirements. The proposed convention was held at Saratoga in the following year, and led to the appointment, by the National Council, of the Commit-

tee of Ten, whose duty it should be to arrange for a conference of school and college teachers of each principal subject which enters into the programmes of secondary schools in the United States. The directors of the National Educational Association at once confirmed the appointment and appropriated \$2,500 for the expenses,—an amount that proved to be little more than half of the sum needed, so that the remainder has been raised by private contributions. President Eliot accepted the chairmanship of the committee, and all the members devoted themselves with energy to the task. Nine conferences, thus organized, brought together on December 28, 1892, ninety experienced men and women, representatives of all parts of our country and of every kind of college and secondary school. Most of them were recognized experts in their specialties. The reports which appear in the volume just sent out by the Bureau of Education are elaborate presentations of the views of these several groups after full discussion of their respective subjects for three days. These reports of the Conferences are preceded by a report of the Committee of Ten, in which there is a summary of the recommendations of the Conferences, and an attempt to coördinate these recommendations into workable programmes for the schools. In the absence of indisputable data for generalization, the best substitute is well considered opinion founded upon experience and discussion. This document brings to bear upon secondary problems exactly this kind of evidence, and is, therefore, a contribution of untold value in itself; moreover, it has demonstrated that this method of investigation—by representative conferences of experts—is capable of an efficiency of which few had previously dreamed.

In commenting upon these reports, one feels decidedly the embarrassment of his riches, and the impossibility of treating the volume exhaustively. We must, within the limits of a magazine article, content ourselves with a brief notice of salient points.

First we must note that the publication of these reports fairly launches us upon a serious and prolonged discussion of secondary education. Indeed for a year the air has been heavy with thought engendered by what has accidentally become known about the Conference discussions in advance of publication. It is evident that educational magazines and journals will teem with comments, that conventions will resound with discussions, that private con-

versation will be tinged with views, all drawing their inspiration from this source. The outcome for the time will, no doubt, be confusing; but the end will find thought crystallized in more permanent forms and practice centring more definitely upon generally approved opinions. Therefore we can be patient with crudities of utterance and narrowness of thought, even with derision and over-praise, with everything, in fact, except selfish pandering to prejudice and class-bias. Wisdom will be justified of her children, and the educational world will be far richer for this "throwing about of brains."

Perhaps the most valuable effect of the report of the Committee of Ten, as contrasted with the Conference reports, will be the direction of public attention to the determination of the real educational value of the several studies commonly employed in secondary education. Are the ancient languages, the modern languages, mathematics, natural science, physical science, and history, of the same value if pursued under practically the same conditions? Or are they of varying kinds and degrees of value, constituting a hierarchy of studies? In the latter case, who is able to organize the scheme and to demonstrate these relative values, so that common minds may appreciate the alleged distinctions and reach settled convictions about them? It is a somewhat open secret that the main report, when originally written, had as the scarlet cord running through it the idea of the practical equivalence of the principal subjects of secondary study for the purposes of general education. In the discussion which ensued upon the first reading, so much opposition to this idea was manifested that in the revision this theory received scant illustration. Enough remained, however, to suggest to one member of the Committee the need for direct protest against the idea in its entirety. I have no hesitation in saying that this question seems to me to be fundamental. Our path to the most useful courses of study, to the proper time-allotment for each subject, to the most effective methods of instruction will in the future, as in the past, be devious and shrouded with obscurity until we know whether certain subjects are undoubtedly the best for general education, or all subjects are equally good if taught and pursued in some best way, or each subject has its peculiar product, best of all for the minds adapted by nature and environment to pursue it. For my own

part, experience and observation incline me to the last named view. I have the greatest difficulty in reducing my conceptions of the value of one study and another to common terms of thought, that I may intelligently compare them. I observe a result of classical study in my own mind and in the minds of certain of my pupils, and it seems to me admirable and valuable. Upon other minds classical study, long pursued, does not seem to have secured the same result at all. Again I find scientific pursuits developing in some pupils a product that is useful and has strength. Which is better as a general education? That is extremely hard to decide, for each is good, and both are unlike. I have great confidence that the discussions and observations of the next five years, stimulated by these reports, will afford grounds for clearer views on this class of questions than common minds now entertain.

Another excellent result of these reports will be a tendency to uniformity in courses of study in secondary schools. I am not so sanguine about this as was he who predicted that within one or two years the programmes of Table IV would be adopted for all the high schools of his own (a Western) State. Conditions of secondary study are so varied and differences of opinion so positive and so fundamental that time must inevitably be a counsellor before in practice anything like uniformity can be attained. Yet we may all have the same ideal of the high school, for instance, and be content to approach that ideal as rapidly as local conditions shall permit. The existence of such an accepted ideal would act strongly on local pride to accelerate the approach to ultimate uniformity. The programmes of Table IV, being a decided advance on those in common use,—though no better than some of the best already in use,—are well fitted to serve for the present as our national ideal. Most high school teachers who have other than a local knowledge of high schools would agree that secondary education would take an immense stride forward if by some magic all our high schools should be switched off upon them for the decade to come. The academies would probably find it quite as easy to adopt them as the high schools. The private preparatory schools would hesitate, naturally, until the colleges should in some way give their sanction to the broader preparation implied in these programmes. In my judgment the colleges are likely to welcome

such a change. Harvard's tendency in this direction is well known, and the method in use at the Leland Stanford, Jr., university shows a similar trend, even more fully developed. I count it a decided advantage to secondary education of every kind, that so good a series of courses has been set clearly before us, bearing an authority born of the concentrated judgment of a hundred skilled teachers.

One result very likely to follow from the general adoption of these programmes, or from uniformity on any basis, in fact, would be a larger current of young lives from the secondary schools, particularly from the high schools, into the institutions of higher learning. For with our secondary schools organized on uniform courses would inevitably come the dovetailing of college entrance requirements into the conclusion of those courses. If, for instance, the high schools of the land were pursuing practically uniform courses, and if the colleges were too slow in accepting the graduates of such courses, the American people, I believe, would create new colleges in order to round out public education on lines continuous with those of the public institutions of lower grade. But the programmes of Table IV happily represent the culmination of the evolution of the high school courses of study and at the same time meet the wishes of modern college professors far better than the ordinary requirements for entrance to college. They seem likely, therefore, to prove a happy means of bridging over the gap between the schools and the colleges, which hosts of young people now fail to cross. Many a boy and girl of promising powers, to whom by right of ability belongs the heritage of culture, now finds this gap practically impassable, and hence is lost to learning. This need not be so. When school and college, are so adjusted that every pupil of ability may find an avenue to college lined with studies which his aptitudes enable him to pursue with success, many more high school graduates will enter college and the colleges, both in their literary and in their scientific departments, will receive very desirable accessions. To this felicitous consummation the recommendations of these reports distinctly point. The secondary schools will be the gainers, moreover, in still another respect. The conferences are agreed, it will be observed, that when subjects are properly taught there need be no differentiation of course in order to prepare pupils for college.

"Every subject which is taught at all in a secondary school should be taught in the same way and to the same extent to every pupil so long as he pursues it, no matter what the probable destination of the pupil may be, or at what point his education is to cease." The adoption of this principle would involve the toning up of instruction in many a high school and academy, and a more rigid grading of pupils according to their ability,—both of which would cause consternation in some indulgent homes, but would constitute a veritable gain to education. In fact, all graduates of the high schools would be prepared for college. In such a case, who can doubt that many more of them than now enter would find a way, or make one, by which to avail themselves of collegiate study?

Let us pass now to some consideration—all too scant for justice—of the Conference reports. These seem to me veritable mines for secondary teachers to delve in for months to come. They abound in nuggets and even veins of rich information and even richer suggestion. The most charmingly written, (if comparisons here are not too invidious) is that on English. The fullest of help to me (for reasons purely personal) is that on history. The least in interest seems to be the report on geography. These impressions are recorded here simply as illustrations of the varied touch these pages will have on individual readers. Each teacher will find in them according as he brings to them, just as in calico printing the band of mordant-smear print cloth in running through the vat takes out only the tint which responds to its previous impression from the engraved roller. It is noticeable, as President Eliot has pointed out, that the Conferences on the newer subjects are at more pains to indicate methods of making their subjects efficient means of culture, than the Conferences on the traditional subjects. There is not one report, however, which will not shed light on dark places in the path of many a teacher.

It is also observable, that the nine Conferences all desire that their several subjects should be taught in an elementary way earlier than they now are, "and that the Conferences on all the subjects except the languages desire to have given in the elementary schools what may be called perspective views, or broad surveys, of their respective subjects—expecting that in later years of the school course parts of these same subjects will be taken

up with more amplitude and detail." The journals that circulate chiefly among elementary schools have noticed this feature of the reports and occasionally treat it with derision. Says one, "The Committee was distinctively appointed upon 'Secondary school studies', and yet the reports in English, geography, mathematics, history, and nature study deal largely, in some cases, chiefly, with elementary school work. There seems to have been no respect paid to the limitations of the commission, but all seem to have regarded it as an occasion for imparting whatever of wisdom they possessed whether appropriate or not." What is here criticised seems to me, in the present condition of secondary education, a valuable feature of the reports. It is our custom, recently, to consider the term "secondary school" as properly applying to schools just above the grade of the common grammar schools in our city systems. This division is not in accord with all good authorities, the Century Dictionary for instance, but it is prevalent practice. The term "secondary-school studies," however, has a slightly different application. By this we mean studies which are pursued in the secondary school, but we do not deny these studies an appropriate place in schools that precede, or other schools that follow, in order of gradation, the secondary school. It is evident that history is a secondary-school study, even if it be pursued in the elementary school earlier and in the college and university later than the years of secondary-school life. In treating of this subject the Conference very properly discussed the earlier phases of the study, and to my view would have been justified in tracing historical study into the college, to show how the methods and organization recommended for the secondary school would benefit collegiate work in history. • There is a solidarity of interest in education which would have been effectually served by so comprehensive a treatment of the theme. But there is a more important justification of the "dipping down" into elementary work in these reports. All the subjects of secondary-school study are capable of two kinds of treatment, the one elementary, the other scientific. The former is largely the assembling of isolated facts and experiences, the latter is the coördinating of these on rational lines of connection. This elementary work is necessarily precedent to the scientific stage of instruction. Now it is the scientific, and not the elementary, stage of study which properly



belongs to the secondary school. Whenever such schools are giving simply elementary training, they are beneath their privilege, whosoever be the fault. They cannot, however, be scientific in their training, unless somewhere the pupils have had the elements imparted by elementary teaching. It seems eminently proper, therefore, that the Conferences, in explaining how their subjects can best be organized and taught in the secondary-school, should point out what kind of a foundation should be laid, in order that their structure may be fair, and well proportioned, and stable. This service will, I am sure, help many a secondary-school worker to see that his work is not really of a secondary—that is, of a scientific—kind. It will lead him to aim at higher ideals or else to grade his school by accepted standards.

It is time, let me also say, to protest against narrow conceptions of the privileges of educational workers. It is *not* out of place for college presidents to criticise the methods of elementary schools. It is not out of place for grammar masters to criticise antiquated and faulty methods even if they find them in the lecture rooms of universities. Experts in English, for instance, whether in school or college, have an ample right to suggest even how elementary English should be taught. Their criticisms should be taken for what they are worth, without discount or premium because they come from any particular source, be it high or low in the gradation of schools. The fact that few of the hundred whose opinions give authority to these reports are, or recently have been, engaged in elementary instruction is no bar to these having a respectful hearing when they trace secondary-school studies back to the elementary stage of instruction.

Perhaps some sensitiveness to the criticisms of college men springs from a feeling that the new methods and the new subjects proposed for elementary education necessarily call for a new order of teachers. No one but a college trained teacher is equal to these demands, says many a teacher in the silence of her own thoughts. And there is an ill-defined fear that the changes impending will push the ordinary teachers from their places to make way for the graduates of the colleges. There is something of truth in this line of thought, but the conclusion to be reached is not jealousy of the suggestions toward improvement. The Committee of Ten squarely meet this point. "To carry out the improvements pro-



posed," say they, "more highly trained teachers will be needed than are now ordinarily to be found for the service of the elementary and secondary schools." They proceed to point out three agencies already in existence which may be much better utilized than they now are, viz.: the summer schools connected with colleges and universities, stated courses by college instructors in the immediate neighborhood of the higher institutions, to be given for several weeks during the year, and similar courses in other places to be given by the high-school master, the chief teacher of a department, or the Superintendent of Schools. To these suggestions of the Committee, one or two others might be added. University extension may be called in by teachers in places too remote from colleges for closer contact. Other summer schools also, than those sustained by colleges can, and will if the demand exists, supply expert instructors in the departments where the new methods and the new spirit should prevail. It is a wise suggestion of the Committee that the school authorities should aid materially, by paying tuition fees and travelling expenses, those teachers who undertake the ampler preparation in vacation time. Meanwhile the normal schools must continue their evolution, and discharge a larger responsibility in coming days. A new type of normal school may need to be formed, distinctly adapted to the preparation of college graduates for work in secondary schools. It is still a mooted question whether this function can best be performed by schools of pedagogy in connection with universities, where theory is likely to prevail, or by "high normal schools," independent organizations under State control, in which practice shall be a larger element. Of these agencies, we observe, some are available for those only who are not in actual service as teachers, but most of them can be used by all teachers who are willing and able to employ their leisure in professional improvement. Such teachers need have no feeling of dread concerning the future when the impending changes are fully in operation. There is even an element of promise for all such. Let us accept the assumption that better professional preparation and greater skill are necessary adjuncts to the change. In all previous educational history, expert teachers have commanded increased pay. There is little reason to think the laws of demand and supply will

cease to bring about the same result in the future. To teachers or prospective teachers who are eager to make themselves thoroughly efficient, the new demands are not a ground for jealousy or despair, but merely an inspiration to growth and fuller ability. They will even attract to our schools some who now find elementary and secondary instruction unattractive fields of effort. These demands should discourage none but the few who are too old or too indolent to adapt themselves to new conditions of school work. Even these may be fitted to do the better work required under sufficiently close supervision by experts. Vocal music is often excellently taught by teachers who themselves are indifferent singers and occasionally by those who cannot sing at all. Industrial drawing, also, can be well taught by teachers who at the outset are unconscious of any power with the pencil. The recommendations of the reports, so far as I am able to see, will work hardship to none who have any rightful claim to their positions as teachers. If they aid in removing some who are now incompetent, little harm will be done.

For the proper use of the methods recommended by the several reports the system of department teachers is evidently better than the system of grade teachers. Our better secondary schools have already come to work largely in departments, but the elementary schools have been slower to adopt this plan. It has its disadvantages, and must have its corrections, which cannot even be discussed in this paper, but under judicious supervision by good principals it is the more effective system in schools of considerable size. I confidently look for its general adoption, with some modifications, in city grammar schools within the near future; for I deem it a necessary element in the movement toward improved conditions of elementary and secondary instruction.

These reports are not without conspicuous omissions. There were but nine of the Conferences, but owing to the grouping of related subjects in most instances, the number of subjects of study actually considered, as usually counted, amounted to at least eighteen. Yet what are these among so many? By the main report we are told of a preliminary correspondence in which it came out that in forty leading secondary schools no less than forty separate subjects were pursued, and that of these as many as twenty-seven were quite generally taught. It

follows, of course, that somebody's favorite studies were bound to be neglected or ignored. In limiting the scope of the Conferences to so small a number as eighteen, the Committee of Ten necessarily ran counter to the judgment of not a few. The friends of manual training are amazed that so important a subject should be disregarded. Old-time subjects, like mental and moral philosophy, are mentioned merely by allusion. Physical training, music, and drawing are crowded to the very verge of the programme. To understand this, we must remember that the aim of the Committee was to a degree restricted. They purposed, not to crowd into a programme all things that should prove on examination to be good, but to centre attention upon the subjects they deemed most important for a general education. In their task they were compelled, even then, to pare down the allotments of the several Conferences, and at the end, indeed, they differentiated their scheme of organization so as to provide four workable school programmes, which can be carried out economically in a single school. They suggest, however, that certain other subjects can be provided for by offering options, as book-keeping and commercial arithmetic for algebra. They further say: "And if it were desired to provide more amply for subjects thought to have practical importance in trade or the useful arts, it would be easy to provide options in such subjects for some of the science contained in the third and fourth years of the 'English' programme." These suggestions open up large possibilities. Any one who has observed the course of evolution in high school programmes within a generation will recall that they have developed a marked tendency toward one or the other varieties of the elective system, that of plain electives, or of electives by groups. The development has not been so complete in the high schools as in the colleges, it is true, but it is clearly noticeable. Now to this plan of electives, the four programmes will easily lend themselves, and here we have the means of still further differentiation of courses. A manual training department or school could easily use out of the programmes of Table IV two subjects a day, and supplement them by giving shop-work and drawing to the pupil for the other half of his time. Any community could thus coördinate a mechanical department with its literary high school on a very economical basis. Similarly a commercial department, with ac-

tual practice in buying and selling, in stenography, and in type-writing could be added, and even more easily a normal department. Any who are dissatisfied with the selection of subjects for the consideration of the Conferences, can still utilize the programmes which are the fruit of so much careful thought, and add thereto whatever may be deemed best in view of local conditions.

The more we consider the question of high school and other secondary courses, and the more we try to discern the real benefit of electives in such schools, the more we are thrown back upon the problem mentioned early in this paper. Until there is some agreement as to what constitutes the standard of educational value, and as to the relative values of the studies employed in secondary education, our conclusions will lack stability and our practice will be far from uniform. To the solution of this problem secondary-school teachers ought to be devoting their most earnest thought. It is delightful that so many of the workers in fields styled higher and lower are just now interested with us in this inquiry. Let us welcome them,—college professors and presidents, grammar school teachers, school superintendents, or professional critics;—they are all our allies for the nonce; but let the men and women of the secondary schools be found to contribute their full share to the discussion and to the solution. This is their privilege; they should recognize it as their duty.

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NOTE—Articles on this subject have already appeared in the SCHOOL REVIEW as follows: Vol. I, pp. 603-618 (Dec., 1893), by President Charles W. Eliot; Vol. II, pp. 83-95 (Feb., 1894), by President J. G. Schurman; Vol. II, pp. 146-155 (March, 1894), by Principal James C. MacKenzie; Vol. II, pp. 193-199 (April, 1894), by President J. M. Taylor.

## THE VALUE OF MILITARY TRAINING AND DISCIPLINE IN SCHOOLS

We are in an age of evolution and growth. In our lively interest in all matters pertaining to the government and betterment of schools, in their management and the means employed for increasing the efficiency of their work in lines of mental discipline, of physical development, of practical utility, and of moral rectitude, we draw from the history and example of all nations, and are not content. The American is not an imitator only, but an innovator and inventor. I wish here to present some of the advantages of a system of military training and discipline which make it possible for a school governed by such a system to approach the ideal of what the American school of the future should be.

It will hardly be necessary to say that the aim of the instruction and discipline under consideration is not to make professional soldiers. There is a higher, nobler end in view. The strictly utilitarian idea, the question of putting into practice in actual warfare the skill, knowledge, and experience acquired by such training is at most of only secondary importance. The object before us is the production of a perfect man, or at least to attain as nearly as possible to that ideal.

From the earliest dawn of history to the present day man has been gauged largely by his military prowess and achievements. Might has made right. Men were called great in proportion as they could command and direct the deadly engines of war. Even now in Europe the monarch or the people that can bring into the field the greatest number of the best drilled men is esteemed first in the councils of the nation. But a new era is appearing. Brute force is no longer our ideal. Power must be associated at least with the appearance of right. The civilized world to-day is under the empire of mind as well as of might. The ideal man of the future will be the ideal soldier, and the ideal soldier is he who is as far superior in mind and soul as he is superior in body.

The two problems that are now attracting most attention in educational discussions are physical training and moral education. On every side we hear the demand for more care and direction in

the development of the physical nature of man than have been given heretofore. Our present high schools, as a rule, give no attention to this kind of education, and it has been said even that "they do well, if they avoid injury."

No one will deny that our schools in the past have given too little thought to physical culture. We have busied ourselves with the training of the intellect, but we have left it fettered in a tenement of useless and benumbing clay. Our eyes at last have been opened to this neglect, and in the reaction we see many, instead of seeking a healthful outlet and regulated exercise, bursting forth in inconsiderate haste for contests between matched men, for Rugby and broken limbs. These games, doubtless, have their part to perform in exciting interest and inquiry into the needs for bodily training. But it is the judgment of many wise heads that there are other means fully as effective, that we need not overdo the matter, and, by giving undue attention to professional sports, take valuable time from regular work to assist in this unequal development.

All have not the same ideal of culture, and we differ in our methods of attaining the highest type of manhood. We know, however, that the end of all culture is the formation of the noblest human character. Knowledge alone will not make us perfect. That healthy nerves and brains may enable us to reach a plane of high excellence, we must obey the laws of nature and authority; we must be free from prejudice, and must possess virtue, a fully developed moral and religious nature, and a keen sense of honor. These conditions can exist only in a healthy body.

While it is true that man must keep himself under discipline and must control human nature at every age, there is no period in life when right living is of so vital importance as in the period of youth. During this time of formation, when every fibre of the body is plastic and may be moulded right or wrong for ever, there is need of careful guidance and wise supervision. This is the proper field for physical training. Our youth have traits and inclinations that demand restraint and repression as well as those that require to be brought out and expanded. There must be a proper discrimination to bring human nature into forms of beauty and power. The exuberance and energy of youth must be controlled and made to follow channels of usefulness and profit.

No exercise is better adapted to the making of a fine physique than the different setting-up drills and the various exercises prescribed for military use. The strain is not spasmodic and unequal, but gentle and even. Every muscle is brought into action and the whole physical system thereby developed. The more vigorous and healthy the body, the less will be the tendency to disease and vice. In addition to the blessing of health the cadet has a graceful carriage, stands easy and erect, and shows by his bearing that he is manly and self-reliant. The body is trained equally with the mind. The method of government in a military school places the cadet in positions of responsibility, and creates in him self-reliance and quickened mental activity. Only those can appreciate the wonderful transformation who have had experience by way of personal observation, or the parent who hardly recognizes his own son after a few months of military schooling. Mr. Molesworth, an English authority, has said: "The contrast between Hyperion and a satyr is scarcely more striking than that which exists between the loutish bearing of a Lancashire lad and the firm, respectful, and self-respecting carriage of the same person after he has been disciplined and polished by the drill."

Military discipline and drill are found to be of great assistance in preserving good government, in holding the student's attention to study, and in sharpening the intellectual faculties. There results an increased excellence in academic work. Obedience and a proper respect for authority become second nature. The cadet in learning to obey develops in himself that rarest and most precious gift, the power of self-control, which marks the noblest type of man. Moreover, there is a charm and an incentive in a military atmosphere that appeal to the most sluggish nature and inspire one to increased effort to excel. Hence it is that many indifferent students, on passing from a common school to a military institution, surprise their former teachers and acquaintances by earnest application and brilliant results. Rank and office being the reward for good deportment and scholarship, the student is impelled by a motive power not existing elsewhere. The cadet officer in performing his duties, in commanding, and in directing his fellows, learns lessons that will be of lasting value to him in after life. Both as officer and as private the cadet learns to attend carefully to matters of personal neatness and exemplary deport-



ment. There is no other system by which are instilled so thoroughly order, patience, punctuality, cheerful obedience, respect for one's superiors, and a sense of duty, honor, and manliness.

Under a system of military education it would seem that there must be a loss in the time and energy available for the usual academic work. Experience shows that the very opposite is true. It is seen that the time devoted to military instruction and exercise is more than compensated by the increased mental activity and vigor of the student. His attention is sharpened and his intellect quickened. He is more alert and can acquire more in a given time. It is not every youth who is studious by nature and who acquires knowledge from the love of acquiring. To accomplish the best results the young student should be placed in surroundings favorable to industry; he should breathe a busy atmosphere. In the common school, left to himself to regulate his hours of study, and exposed to the innumerable temptations of society and good-fellowship, the pupil unconsciously or heedlessly loses valuable time. In a military school it is otherwise. Life is regular as clock-work. Not only recitation and drill, but also recreation, study, and even sleep have their allotted hours. In this way the pupil learns method and acquires good mental habits, for regularity and method are not less beneficial to the mind than to the body.

In the usual routine the cadet rises with the morning gun at six o'clock, breakfasts at seven, attends chapel and recitations, and studies until half past twelve, has an hour for dinner, studies till three, drills until half past four, including supper has recreation until seven, studies from seven till ten, and goes to bed at taps with a wholesome desire for sleep and the satisfaction of a day well spent. It is not optional with the cadet to observe these hours or not at pleasure. He knows that to be in line at every roll call, to have his lessons well, to attend promptly to all duties, is easier than to serve "confines," or to walk guard while his mates are enjoying their hours of recreation and sport. A boy with the least spirit and ambition keeps the number of his demerits small, and is seen not often on the "merry-go-round." With all this life and exercise the playground loses none of its attraction for the young soldier. His healthy nature delights in many sports, in tennis and in ball.



In this great country of ours the will of the people is law. Good citizens are responsible for good government and are its only defence. Therefore, though the object of the school we have been describing is not to make professional soldiers, the knowledge there obtained may be of untold value in times of danger from without or of internal trouble and dissension. Liberty and human rights are ours to defend. We know not when we may be called upon to make a sacrifice, but we must be ready always, for the hour may steal upon us when least expected. National supremacy still rests upon military power; and we have not yet a tribunal of the nations to decide all international difficulties by methods of wisdom and peace. We should not ruin ourselves in maintaining a large standing army, but we need a healthy race, men of unimpaired physical development. With such material available we may have a nation armed and fear no foe.

Finally, in character building and moral training, the school of the young soldier is one that cannot be excelled. He continually has impressed upon him lessons of truthfulness, honor, self-restraint, manliness, moral tone, duty, and patriotism. His healthy bodily vigor makes him less subject to vicious habits, and he is enabled to attain to the ideal described by Professor David Swing in a recent address to the graduating class of a military school: "You cannot represent your State, nor your Nation, with a sword only. The mind must be as strong as the arm, and the heart be as kind as the mind is bright and the sword flashing. May you this day go forth so broad, so symmetrical, that in your soul all strength and beauty may meet. May nature, man, country, God, vivacity, science and poetry, a never-ending love and tenderness, swords and books, truth, love and guns, all so combine in your natures and lives, as to make the world see in you the true man, fit alike for all happy hours and all great hours."

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## SOME RESULTS OF THE WELSH INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION ACT

### A CRITICAL SUMMARY.

This paper must necessarily be a history of beginnings, for at the present moment only one school under the scheme has actually begun work, though another is to begin almost immediately. But it is not often that educationists are able to observe the incubation, so to say, of an educational system; and the Intermediate Education movement in Wales therefore offers a peculiarly valuable and interesting opportunity for scientific observation and inference. It is thus rather a matter for congratulation than otherwise that the Act is being but slowly realized, since the phenomena connected with its development are thereby so much better adapted for the purposes of the student. An endeavour will be made to give both an analytical and historical presentment, in outline, of the subject.

*Origin of the Act.* A few words will be sufficient to indicate the history of the movement which resulted in the Welsh Intermediate Education Act of 1889. The spirit of artistic and literary culture, which is so characteristic of Wales, and finds both its nurture and expression in the national and local Eisteddfods, and in the competitive meetings which occur in almost every hamlet, led to an agitation for wider borders and larger scope in the educational system of the country, and a more ready and full access to educational opportunities. Of the urgency of the need for more generous provision of schools and teachers, the Schools Inquiry Commission Report gives the completest evidence. This report shows that in most parts of Wales the supply of grammar schools was lamentably inadequate, and that the endowments for secondary education were few and small. The commissioners estimated that about sixteen boys out of every thousand of the population should be receiving a secondary education; but they found that in Wales there was only provision for about three in every thousand, whilst not quite two in every thousand were actually in

attendance at places of secondary education. This was the case in 1866. In 1881 a parliamentary committee was appointed to enquire into the condition of intermediate and higher education in Wales, and it reported that there were only twenty-seven endowed grammar schools in the whole of Wales and Monmouthshire. In these there were 1,540 pupils. Of private schools giving a secondary education there existed 152, having an aggregate of 4,158 pupils. These schools were very small ones and the tuition fee paid by the pupils did not exceed £6 yearly on the average. The committee say, reasonably enough: "Even assuming, as we are hardly justified in doing, that the proprietors of these schools are for the most part efficient teachers, it is difficult to understand how, under such conditions, the necessary requirements of a sound intermediate education can be satisfactorily met."

It was against such a condition of things educational that the national enthusiasm had to struggle, before the fierce light of public official enquiry had given emphasis to the evils. Of the reality and intense earnestness of the desire for higher education amongst the people, their efforts and sacrifices give conclusive evidence. Recognizing that the foundation of a good system of education must be based upon a supply of thoroughly qualified teachers, the first result of the educational movement was the foundation, through the aid of voluntary subscriptions, of the Normal college at Bangor, in 1862. This was followed, in 1872, by the inauguration of the more ambitious institution: the University College of Wales, at Aberystwyth. This has seen many vicissitudes, and experienced not a few serious crises, but it has been loyally and devotedly supported by staunch friends and workers. It is now probably one of the most flourishing university colleges in the united kingdom. A more magnificent evidence of, and tribute to, national enthusiasm for education can hardly be conceived, for it is the outcome as much of the generous pecuniary self-sacrifice of small farmers, miners, and labourers, as of the wisdom and patriotism of the leaders of the movement. It is said to have been subscribed to by 200,000 persons, and has been aptly called "the college of the people's pence."

The leaders of the movement, however, saw that but little really permeating or permanent effect could be produced by anything less than a thorough reorganization of educational agencies

in the principality, and a comprehensive and unified system of schools and colleges. The agitation was, therefore, directed into political and legislative channels and parliament was urged to accept a bill incorporating the suggestions made by the committee of enquiry in 1881. Already (in 1883) the recommendations of the committee had brought about the establishment of the University College of North Wales, at Bangor, and the University College of South Wales and Monmouthshire, at Cardiff—each college receiving an annual grant of £4,000 from the treasury. The agitation for such an act became wide-spread, intense, and persistent. Public meetings on the subject were held all over the country, and petitions from almost every public body in Wales were sent to parliament. A happy issue attended this praiseworthy importunity and on the twelfth of August, 1889, the Welsh Intermediate Education Act received the royal assent. Clause 2 of the Act declares that "The purpose of this Act is to make further provision for the intermediate and technical education of the inhabitants of Wales and the county of Monmouth."

*The Executive for the Act.* The Act itself prescribes that "there shall be appointed in every county . . . a joint education committee of the county council of such county consisting of three persons nominated by the county council, and two persons, being persons well acquainted with the conditions of Wales and wants of the people . . . nominated by the Lord President of her Majesty's Privy Council." It was also provided that such committees might act in concert. The result was that early in 1890 the committees for the counties of North Wales met together for a joint conference, and those in South Wales did similarly. Two or three conferences by these two separate bodies were held, and then they united and held a general conference of the joint education committees of Wales and Monmouthshire. The first meeting of this body was held at Shrewsbury on September 19th, 1890, since when eight or more meetings have been held. Mr. R. H. D. Acland, M. P.,—now Vice President of the Council with a seat in the Cabinet, which practically makes him Minister for Education—was elected permanent chairman, and to his sagacity, legislative ability, and real grasp of the question, the success of the conferences is largely due.

Before dealing with the actual work done by this body it will be well critically to observe their qualifications for the duties they were called upon to discharge. Three-fifths of the representatives were appointed by the county councils, and very closely reflected the general character of those bodies. There were actually on the body:—members of the “nobility and gentry” (as the phrase goes), clergymen (of the Established and Nonconformist churches), heads of university colleges and schools, medical men, prosperous tradesmen, official persons, and general busybodies, but not one who had given his life to a scientific study of, and practical work in, education. No real expert in the subject to be dealt with—the nearest approach to this being the chairman—no little leaven that might leaven the whole lump. There were those who knew a good deal of school management from the commercial aspect, but practically nothing of the school as an organism; those who had for many years done the work of educators without being educationists; many who neither knew nor professed to know about education; and others who knew a little about the many things of ordinary everyday life, but knew nothing much about anything. All, however, had the saving grace of intense earnestness, whole hearted devotion, ungrudging self-sacrifice, and unwearied energy for the good of Welsh education. Here, therefore, is a body of men who have to formulate a system, to realize, as far as may be, an educational ideal—to which also they have to give form and expression—and yet not one of them can fairly be called an educationist *i. e.* one who has a scientific grasp of the principles involved in education as an organism of knowledge, and whose mind has acquired the capacity of appreciating and estimating the value of new data. A body of empiricists dealing with empiricals.

But some of the members of this body were prejudiced by worse than ignorance, for they had had practice in wrong doing. As members of county councils they had been engaged in simply squandering money in blind endeavours to secure technical education. These men were full of the conviction that the proper persons to decide exactly how public money should be expended were those who paid the rates. They, and others, still cherish the idea that anybody is fit to be a teacher, if he has first learnt something himself, and much more, therefore, is a smart and suc-

cessful ratepayer fit to control the teacher and his work. Truly we are a nation of shopkeepers in these matters. That the above really represents their conception of the matter will be seen in the powers which are given to popularly elected governors, from whom no special knowledge or qualification is required. It is the most significant and suggestive criticism upon our education in the past, that the people have not yet learnt that the representation of brains is perhaps more important than the representation of heads. Popular control is a good thing and a right, but effective and economical control is equally good and right, and more desirable. Still, it must be admitted that, in spite of these drawbacks, much good work was done by the conference body, and that great credit is due to them for energy which they gave to the work, and the sound common sense with which, as a rule, they dealt with the subject.

*Some Determining Influences.* Undoubtedly the executive bodies were particularly fortunate in having been preceded in their work by the Schools Inquiry Commission, and the committee appointed to enquire into the condition of intermediate and higher education in Wales. The former gave a most comprehensive and exhaustive survey of the whole problem of secondary education with regard to finance, organization, curriculum, grading, accommodation, management, etc.—from the traditional and practical standpoint—whilst the latter gave definite recommendations as to the school accommodation required, the sources of revenue, the electing of governing bodies, the question of scholarships and exhibitions, the inspection of schools, etc., in Wales. Further, most of the suggestions given by both bodies, had been incorporated in the Act, so that they were both guided and limited in their work. Then there was the fact that the principality was in a state of excitement and agitation with regard to education so that much information which it would otherwise have been difficult, if not impossible, to procure was easily obtained, and many obscure abuses and needs were brought to light. The spirit of nationality had been deeply aroused and much was on the surface that would ordinarily have been deep down. There was a facility and fulness possible in investigation which is seldom to be met with. Those who had had much experience in secondary school work were

well represented, and exerted considerable influence. But, above all, there was an Assistant Charity Commissioner present at the conferences, who gave most valuable and varied help both by way of precept and precedent, quoted from the work of the charity commissioners under the Endowed Schools Act of 1869—the outcome of the Schools Inquiry Commission Report. Thus there was no lack of concrete information and example, as there was no want of energy or earnestness, in the work. The local element and influence was secured by public enquiries conducted by the joint committees. These enquiries took the form of receiving deputations from those who considered they had specific claims to advance, or by visits of the committees to various localities for purposes of investigation, such visits being previously announced and full publicity invited. Too much praise can hardly be given to such a method of procedure, which is so well calculated to enlist the sympathies of those most concerned and to secure the fullest possible opportunity for obtaining a knowledge of local wishes and wants. And it was with the materials obtained from the above mentioned sources that the conference of the joint committees proceeded to formulate schemes for the different counties. These schemes, though differing in detail, since the final word was with the separate local governing bodies, are as similar in their conception and form, as the outcome of the general conferences.

*Sources of Revenue.* The funds for the purposes of the Act are derived from:—(a) a county rate not exceeding a half-penny in the pound, (b) a grant from the treasury, depending upon the efficiency of the school, and not to exceed the amount yielded by the county rate, (c) any education endowments already existing, (d) any new endowments which may be given, (e) fees, (f) a sum of £34,000 per annum (for the whole of Wales and Monmouth), which unexpectedly became available for intermediate education, under the Local Taxation Act—originally intended as compensation money for the extinction of public-house licenses. It will be seen that there is a very definite and direct obligation laid upon those who immediately enjoy the advantages of the Act to contribute a considerable share of the money needed. Not only have the local people to pay thus through the local rates, but wherever one of the schools is located the inhabitants of that school district have to



raise a sum at least equivalent to, sometimes three or four times as large as the amount received from the general fund for the school building, in addition to providing a site. This is doubtless a sound and sufficient check upon that extravagance and carelessness which so often arises in the local expenditure of money wholly drawn from imperial taxation. The revenue derivable from fees for tuition is comparatively small; for the annual fee per pupil only ranges from three to ten pounds. The charge for board and residence, when provided, ranges from £25 to £40 per session. The fees were designedly fixed at the lowest possible rate, so that they should not be prohibitive to the working classes.

*The Governing Bodies.* There are two governing bodies under each scheme, unless the scheme be for a county borough when there is only one, and women are eligible for election to them. These two bodies are called respectively the county governing body, and school managers—who constitute a school district governing body. The general character of these bodies may be inferred from the way in which they are appointed. In the case of the county governing body just over a half of the members are appointed by the county councils, one-fourth by the different bodies of school managers, one-tenth by university colleges, one-seventh is co-opted. The school managers are appointed as follows:—just over a half by the county council, one-sixth by the municipal or sanitary authority, one-fourth by the school boards in the district, and one-sixth by a university college (if in the neighbourhood). This may be regarded as typical, though, of course, considerable variations occur. There can be no doubt therefore as to what will be the prevailing tone of these bodies. All that was urged in adverse criticism of the joint committees which brought the scheme into form will hold with regard to their creations, and it is more than likely that as they reflect the constitution of their authors so will they also reflect their general characteristics. Omniscience as well as omnipotence is still attributed to the ratepayer.

The county governors are elected for three years, and have the following duties to discharge:—to receive, invest, and administer all funds; to provide and pay for the inspection and a yearly examination of all schools under the scheme, by competent examin-



ers unconnected with the schools; to provide and contribute to the payment of travelling teachers to teach such subjects as may from time to time be determined; to regulate, after consultation with school managers, the scholarships at the schools, to regulate, in concert with the school managers and with the other county governing bodies, the transfer of pupils and scholarships from one district to another; and to establish, if they think fit, a pension fund for head teachers—to which head teachers must themselves contribute.

The functions of school managers, who are also elected for three years, are as follows:—to provide, after consultation with the county governing body, proper school buildings, and to keep them in proper repair; to appoint and dismiss, subject to specified conditions, all teachers; to prescribe, within the limits fixed by the scheme, the general subjects of instruction and the relative prominence and value to be assigned to each group of subjects; to arrange the school terms, vacations, holidays, the payment of day scholars, and the number and payments of boarders; to regulate the exceptionally early admission or late leaving of pupils; to make regulations for religious instruction, if any; to award prizes, if they think fit; to award the scholarships, exhibitions, and bursaries; to allot the scholarships for pupils from elementary schools; and generally to advise the county governing body.

From this it will be seen that those who reflect the general intelligence of the men in the street have the power of making or marring a national scheme of education. That they cannot go very grievously wrong is almost certain, but it is not less certain that they are not likely to display that thorough grasp of the principles of education, that broad and generous sympathy for really intellectual and moral as against merely superficial and utilitarian results, and that deeper insight into the fundamental and far reaching effect of true education on the life of the nation, which are so absolutely necessary to a high ideal and an effective hold on the real. It is true that the empiricist in education will not be unrepresented, but even he is in a negligible minority, whilst the educationist is not insisted upon and is very unlikely even to creep in unawares.

There is food for very serious reflection in the fact that school managers have to "prescribe the general subjects of instruction,

and the relative prominence and value to be assigned to each group of subjects." This constitutes a most pernicious opportunity for your plain practical man who flatters himself on his common sense and knowledge of what man wants to know for purposes of everyday life. Here is the opening for faddists and maddists—if one may coin such a term. Imagine, to take an extreme case, the successful coal merchant, the ancient squire, and the local demagogue, seriously discussing such a matter as the above! True it is provided that "before exercising any power or making any regulations under the last foregoing clause, the school managers shall consult the head master in such a manner as to give him full opportunity for the expression of his views," but the dogmatism of ignorance and the consequence of office are dangerous rivals to to such a safeguard. Here surely, in the sense of ignorance against knowledge, "fools rush in where angels fear to tread". How strangely such procedure contrasts with the authoritative and scientifically informed control of the German system.

The reasons given by the members of the conference of the joint committees who are responsible for the schemes are suggestive of the spirit in which the question was approached. One speaker said "It seems to me rather unreasonable that the subscribers should have three representatives and the county council only one, for the latter may be contributing from £100 to £250 a year to each school, while the former may have subscribed altogether only a thousand or fifteen hundred pounds." Others said: "We have left it entirely for further consideration how far the gift of a lump sum should entitle a person to representation for ever" (for ever!); "subscribers rather than donors are to have representation"; "there shall be a majority of one for the county council on the body, and there is an additional reason for this now, in that the money from the new grant comes to us from the county council". Always the idea that the payment of taxes gives both the right and the fitness for legislative and executive functions. It is true that a protest was occasionally made on behalf of experience and knowledge, but it met with a misguided response in the granting of a beggarly array of school boards representatives, who can seldom lay claim to anything but the merest pittance of empirical and incidental experience.

*The Curriculum.* It is provided that religious instruction may be given, and that "instruction shall also be given in the following subjects:—Reading, writing, and arithmetic; geography; history, including scripture history; English grammar, composition, and literature; drawing, freehand, geometrical, and mechanical; mathematics; Latin; at least one modern foreign European language; at least one branch of natural science, with special attention to the industries of the district; vocal music; and drill, or other physical exercises; (and for girls only, in the place of natural science as above, domestic economy and the laws of health). Instruction may also be given in the following subjects:—Greek; Welsh grammar, composition, and literature; mechanics; the principles of agriculture; navigation; mensuration; shorthand; and working in wood and iron (and for girls only, cookery and dress-making); and in such other subjects of intermediate or technical education as the school managers, after consultation with the county governing body, may think fit to introduce." The range and limit of subjects was prescribed by the Welsh Intermediate Act, and is obviously an extensive and generous scheme. The different county schemes show a palpable surrender to the craze for so-called technical education, but fortunately the Act specially provides that the curriculum "shall not include teaching the practice of any trade or industry, or employment." The schemes involve a well deserved concession to the national sentiment, and a tribute to the patriotism of the young Wales party, in the inclusion of "Welsh grammar, composition, and literature". With regard to religious instruction "no religious catechism, or religious formulary which is distinctive of any particular denomination shall be taught to a scholar", and there is a "conscience clause" allowing exemption from religious instruction and observances, if this be claimed in writing by parents. The scheme says "instrumental music may be taught, on the written request of a parent, but at an extra fee at the rate of not less than £3 a year."

It is satisfactory to find that the fetishism of classical learning is ignored, for both idealism and utilitarianism in education approve of its receiving less homage. Fortunately the requirements of practical life in causing the substituting of modern languages have not thereby excluded any necessary element of mental discipline. Not less encouraging is it to note that it is insisted that

"classes in scientific and technical subjects shall in all cases be associated with sufficient experimental demonstration and practical teaching". Altogether the curriculum recommends itself to the educationist as comprising all the necessary material for complete educational training.

Some interesting and instructive proceedings took place at the conferences on Sloyd and physical exercises. A sub-committee furnished a report on manual instruction (including Sloyd and English carpentry), in which the educational advantages of the subjects were fully reviewed, and the practical details and cost of working the various schemes were set forth. The chief reasons urged in favor of physical exercises were that organized games fostered *esprit de corps* and prevented loafing—a very concrete expression for the moral results of physical culture. Manual instruction was advocated because it gives "that general handiness in the use of hands and fingers, and that power of working together with hand and eye which lies at the bottom of all skill". It was further argued that: (1) it obviates that feeling of contempt for manual labour which is too widespread at the present day"; (2) and it does "not only not interfere with the ordinary school work, but actually improves that school work . . . because it forces the child to think . . . [as] it is quite impossible to get a thing up by rote". Certainly this is not very profound pedagogy, but it is passable practice.

*The Staff.* In this matter again the competency of the lay mind for professional purposes was severely tested. So far as can be discovered from the authorized reports of the conferences, there was never any general suggestion or disposition to definitely require evidence of a scientific knowledge of education and professional training from those who might be appointed on the staff of a school. And this in spite of the fact that the chairman, in speaking upon the desirability of a central governing body for Wales, said: "And if we are men of foresight, we shall consider other questions. There is the question of the training of teachers. If we are to assist in raising an able body of teachers, we should consider the subject of training. Nothing is more ridiculous than the way in which many private schools get young fellows from the universities without the slightest idea of how to teach, and they

practice upon our unfortunate sons, until they have learnt the way". Previously to this he had written, in a little hand-book to the Act, still more explicitly: "As soon as possible after the schools have been established it should be provided that no teacher, male or female, should be appointed who has not some certificate both of adequate training in teaching and adequate knowledge." But, to all appearance, this is the voice of one crying in the wilderness. The voice of the conference was raised loud and long over the solution of the, to them, tremendous problem: who is to appoint and dismiss the teachers. Much ingenuity and great verbosity was displayed in deciding between the fitness of the county governing body and the school managers to appoint head teachers, and between these bodies and head teachers to appoint assistant teachers. In this matter the conference found its feet and fairly revelled in enjoyment. Pages of talk declare their appreciation of the topic. Here is something to be managed, a power to be exercised, places to be obtained, the spirit of officialism to be gratified, and a real opportunity for realizing the sweets of office. Not that it is undesirable that teachers should be appointed by such bodies, or that the members of them should not obtain every gratification from the exercise of their powers; but it seems not too much to ask that the first consideration should be to secure the thorough fitness of the teachers—of which mere empirical experience is the most unreliable evidence.

The only definite requirement insisted upon was that head masters should have taken a university degree—though even this is not universal, for one scheme accepts certificates in science and art subjects as equivalent. Assistant teachers are merely required to be men and women. The views of the omnipotent ratepayer, on the subject of professional fitness, were unequivocally declared in discussing the appointment of teachers in manual instruction. Thus say these wise ones:—(1) "We could find a fair number of intelligent mechanics, who could teach the children in the schools thoroughly"; (2) "most efficiently and most satisfactorily . . . it can be done in this way by a girl who has had no special training"; (3) "what about those artisans who have gone to college and have taken their degrees? . . . I think it would be a great mistake not to utilize them"; (4) "I have no doubt that a remark

as to the inability of such men [artizans] to teach would apply ten years ago, but to-day it does not apply. [The Chairman.] And do you think they would make good teachers? . . . Yes, far better than those who understand little more than the theory"; (5) "a man who is really intelligent and cultivated, though he is an artizan, will be no doubt an admirable teacher". It is plain from this that we are in urgent need of schools in which to train our managers of education, as well as the teachers.

A very valuable report, based on information received in reply to questions addressed to school authorities in the United States and Scotland, on the employment of women teachers was read before the conference. It contained overwhelming evidence in favour of employing women for the younger children, both boys and girls; but no resolution, expressing the opinion of the conference on the matter, seems to have been passed.

Some discussion took place as to the number of pupils to be reckoned for each teacher, and it seemed to be thought that about twenty pupils to one teacher would be a good working average in a school of about 100 pupils, with an ordinarily full curriculum—the head teacher to count for twenty. This conclusion was based upon the evidence supplied from one or two schools known to members of the conference.

It was considered that salaries for head teachers should range from £200 upwards, and for assistant teachers from £80 upwards.

*The Pupils.* The conception of the place of the new intermediate schools in the educational system is clearly shown in the manner in which the supply of pupils is provided for. The central idea is that a regular contingent of scholars will come from the elementary schools. Hence very full consideration was given to the age and acquirements which should constitute the minimum qualification for admission. The general feeling seemed to be that such candidates should have passed the fifth standard—*i. e.* be able to read from a standard author with fluency, ease, and expression; to write from memory the substance of a short story read out twice; to work the ordinary rules in arithmetic up to simple fractions; and have some knowledge of grammar, geography, and history with probably a smattering of science and a training

in drawing—or an equivalent examination. But no scholar, as a rule, is to be admitted under the age of eight years. Some schemes, however, accept a slightly lower level of acquirements, *viz.* the fourth standard. It was held that the money granted for intermediate schools could not legitimately be spent on providing education for children below this standard, since the work was already being efficiently done at the public expense in elementary schools. At the same time it was felt that the difference in curriculum justified the point of departure being put at about the fourth or fifth standard in the elementary school. But it was recognised that there would certainly be some conflict between what are called higher grade elementary schools and the intermediate schools, inasmuch as their syllabuses are almost identical for the most part. The exact form and consequences of this could not be estimated, however, and it was left to the sequence of events to decide as to the best course to adopt.

Of the county scholarships to be given to pupils in the schools, “not less than one-half of the whole number . . . shall consist of total exemption from tuition fees, and shall be awarded . . . to children who are, and have for not less than three years been scholars in any public elementary schools.” Also any residue of funds is to be devoted to increasing these scholarships and to establishing “bursaries, consisting of payments of an amount sufficient to cover the estimated expenses of travelling to and from the school, and of books and stationery, and other incidental expenses of scholars from public elementary schools. These bursaries shall be awarded by the school managers to those applicants who in their opinion shall from their pecuniary circumstances be most in need of them, and not on the result of an examination.” Thus a very generous opportunity and inducement is given to pupils from elementary schools to enter the new schools, and thus enjoy the advantages of a course which is a continuation of the education which they have already received, and a development into those new and higher branches which constitute a direct preparation for a university course. To complete the opportunity thus offered it is ordered that “the county governing body shall out of the funds set apart for the purpose, maintain exhibitions to be called county exhibitions, each of a yearly value of not less than £10, tenable for not more than three years at any univer-



sity or university college or other institution of university, professional, or technical, education approved by the county governing body, and to be awarded, on the result of such examination as they shall think fit, to boys and girls who then are, and have for not less than two years been in a county school." At the present such an exhibition would cover all tuition fees for an arts course in one of the Welsh university colleges.

The total number of county scholarships, *i. e.* those directly granted out of the ordinary funds provided under the Act, are to be "not less than one-tenth, nor more than one-fifth of the greatest number of scholars in the school during the last term of the preceding year".

An interesting example of the eagerness with which the pupils from elementary schools are likely to avail themselves of the advantages offered was given a week or two ago (the beginning of January) when 120 candidates competed for 15 scholarships offered in connection with a school to be opened at Carnarvon in February.

One may reasonably conclude from the above that the conflict between the new schools and those secondary schools, whether private or public, already in existence will be a definitely limited one. All preparatory education must be done either in the elementary schools, or at private or public secondary schools (other than those under the act, whilst all the backward and dull of the older pupils will have to be provided for, as a rule, outside the new schools since the leaving age is fixed at seventeen. Thus there will be a healthy stimulus to other schools to offer special training for younger pupils and for the dull ones amongst the older school pupils. The work of private schools is thus likely to become more specialized rather than materially less, and this will almost certainly be to the advantage of the schools and the scholars, for the expenses of working the schools will be considerably less and the efforts of the teachers—who will have to be specialists—will be more concentrated.

*The Schools.* In spite of the success of mixed schools at home and abroad, (especially in the United States) the conference definitely decided against such schools, and in favour of separate and dual (*i. e.* boys and girls under the same roof, and same head

teacher, but otherwise entirely separate) schools. The reason given for refusing to approve of mixed schools, except in country districts—a strange reservation, since there, if anywhere, opportunities and occasions for mischief are most abundant—was that moral discipline suffers in such cases. This opinion was persisted in notwithstanding the fact that evidence was given of the unqualified success of schools known to members of the conference, the absence of any direct conflicting evidence during the discussion, and the success of the national colleges which are worked on the co-education principle. It is very questionable whether the merits of the question at issue were, even remotely, realized by the members of the conference. Yet, strangely enough, these business men recommended schemes involving very great extra expenditure. But then most men are prepared to spend more (especially of other people's money) on their own folly than on another man's wisdom.

Some excellent designs for schools were procured in response to premiums offered by a public spirited individual, and these were copied and placed in the hands of the different county governing bodies.

*The First Fruits.* One school has already commenced work at Bangor and another is to be opened this month (February) at Carnarvon. The former is a transfer, under the Act, of the Friars' Grammar school. It is of course too early yet to speak of any results of the work.

Six schemes have up to the present received the royal assent, and six others will probably receive it within the next three months. Some of the schemes, are being tediously delayed, or seriously mangled, with regard to the scholarship proposals, &c., by the bishops (acting for the Church party) in the House of Lords. Monopolies, especially in religion and education, die hard.

*The Central Welsh Intermediate Education Board.* This, which at present is only a proposal for which a draft scheme has been issued by the charity commissioners, is certainly one of the most valuable outcomes of the educational movement. Although the present proposals for its constitution will render its personnel as objectionable, from the purely educational point of view, as those

bodies already constituted under the Act, yet as a new departure in local government it is full of great possibilities of good. The over centralization of the details of educational government has in the last led to a want of sympathy, a slowness of procedure, and an inelasticity of adaptation, which have been a serious hindrance to progress. A few provincial centres of government would do much to obviate this.

The duties proposed for this board are:—To receive, invest (in the name of the official trustees of charitable funds) and administer certain contributions from the county governing bodies, the treasury, and certain bequests, &c.; to provide scholarships in schools, university colleges, and universities; to make the necessary arrangements for the examination and inspection of schools; administer an exhibition fund for the training of teachers; to organise a pension scheme for teachers; to consider the needs of the schools with regard to books, maps, and other apparatus, and the publication or circulation of information with respect to the same, and to act as agents for supplying the same if necessary; to arrange conferences of governing bodies or of teachers; and generally take steps in furtherance of the objects of the Act. From which it will be seen that a large and important sphere of usefulness is open to it.

In conclusion it may be said that whilst there is much to admire in what has already been done, there is also much to deplore. That it should be possible, after all that the work and wisdom of the great educationists of all countries and times have done for us, for a scheme of education to come into existence through, and have to depend upon, a body of persons without central or local expert influence, criticism, or control is simply astounding. Such a fact goes far to justify and realize the taunt that we are a nation of shopkeepers, and to add to it the rider: with a desire to keep other people's shops. But such is typical of the management of education in England: there is a hopeless and helpless groping in the dark, a mischievous and mistaken—because ignorant—effort to imitate the systems of other nations, a constant realization that we have fallen behind and a hurried scramble to catch up, a notion that it is only a matter of organization and management which importunate politicians, local busybodies, and permanent

officials are competent to undertake, and an implicit conviction that one who has been educated knows all about it. In the face of our national ignorance and fatuity it is simply marvellous that so much has been achieved. One more guiding star of righteous error has been added to a long list, and it can only be hoped that the truth it teaches may soon be fully realized and permanently effective.\*

H. Holman

Aberystwyth, Wales

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## COMMUNICATION

*To the Editors of The School Review:*

Will you kindly permit me to enter a protest against one of the recommendations of the Committee of Ten on English?

I notice in their report they make the assertion that the paraphrasing of poetry is not to be commended as an exercise in prose composition and that the reducing of poetry to prose is not to be defended. May I ask why?

Paraphrasing is one of the most efficient means of reaching the end desired in English: viz., (1) To enable the pupil to understand the expressed thoughts of others and to give expression to thoughts of his own; and (2) to cultivate a taste for reading, to give the pupil some acquaintance with good literature, and to furnish him with the means of extending that acquaintance.

If then, paraphrasing is good, why not use the best material for that purpose, even if that material include the masterpieces of poetry?

All paraphrasing must take its tone from the original work on which it is based. Strong, forceful sentences lose nothing in the mind of the young student by being translated into his simpler language, while, on the other hand, the pupil's rendition becomes

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\* The following are the chief sources of information which have been consulted:—The authorized reports of the Conference of the Joint Education Committees of Wales and Monmouthshire; the County Schemes; the Welsh Intermediate Education Act; the Draft Scheme of the proposed Central Welsh Board; Acland & Smith's *Studies in Secondary Education*; Ellis & Griffiths' *Intermediate and Technical Education (Wales)*.

dignified, strong and beautiful from its close association with the author's thought.

Even without the supervision of the careful teacher who would show how the original transcends the paraphrase, the pupil must feel the vast distance yet to be traversed before he can unite harmony and strength to make the musical rhythm of our famous lyrics.

The committee recommend a reproduction rather than a paraphrase: may I ask if "Snow-Bound" can be reproduced without losing much of the beauty of the poem which cannot escape the more minute examination required by the paraphrase. Would the beautiful facts and fancies of the snowstorm, or the characterizations of the family circle, or the calm, wholesome philosophy which pervades the poem, to say nothing of the religious truths, appeal so strongly to the pupil in the reproduction?

The same objection would be urged, doubtless, in regard to selections for analysis. But to it also I would say, let us have the best English before the pupil, for whatever purpose we need it. If we use other than the best, we gain nothing and lose the inspiration which comes from contact with high thought and forcible, graceful expression.

May I hope to hear from some one on this subject?

*Elizabeth A. Meseroll*

*High School, Trenton, N. J.*

## BOOK DEPARTMENT

*A full description of the books received, giving size, price, etc., will be found in the list of "Publications Received" in this issue, or, generally, in a preceding issue of the SCHOOL REVIEW.*

### *George William Curtis as an Educator.\**

Many interests divided the attention of George William Curtis while living and have paid their tribute to him since his death. But whatever department of life or letters may have the strongest and most enduring claim to his name he adorned them all; his service was always conscientious and bore the quality of distinction. Like Milton, his ideal English scholar whom he so much admired, he could not praise "a fugitive and cloistered virtue, unexercised and unbreathed", but turned resolutely from the blandishments and ease of life to its obvious and severe tasks and duties. His heart, as Wordsworth said of Milton's, "The lowliest duties on herself did lay."

A travelled man from foreign lands, he united the culture of the old world with the democratic spirit of the new. An editor influential and independent, he was as a popular educator through the press the peer of his contemporaries. A graceful essayist and genial *censor morum* of his day and generation, he taught from the Easy Chair a larger circle of pupils than any college president can reach. Many a secondary teacher can bear witness to his influence on young minds from homes to which the Easy Chair had monthly entrance. A lecturer and orator on the Lyceum when it was in its glory, he taught the people as one having authority. As a reformer he saw one cause an accomplished fact, and laid so well the foundations of another, of which education is the chief corner stone, that those who come after will need only to carry the structure to completion.

But his educational work and influence were not merely incidental and subordinate, the occupation of an idle hour. Nor were they perfunctory only. They were direct and inspirational to a marked degree. Of this, the handsome volumes of his orations and addresses, edited by his friend, Professor Charles Eliot Norton of Harvard, bear abundant evidence. Nor is their value confined to the inspiration and delight of the passing hour. In 1887 Mr. Curtis wrote to a friend who desired him to publish them: "My addresses are really ephemeral." They have a permanent histor-

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\**Orations and Addresses of George William Curtis.* Edited by CHARLES ELIOT NORTON. Three volumes. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1894.

ical value, even though one may not anticipate as much for them as does Regent Fitch in his admirable Memorial Address. Soon after the death of Mr. Curtis, Professor N. M. Butler said in a brief editorial: "His services to higher education were less conspicuous than those to literature and public life, but hardly less important."

George William Curtis was born February 24, 1824. He died August 31, 1892. He was elected Regent of the University of the State of New York, April 12, 1864; Vice-Chancellor, January 14, 1886; Chancellor, January 30, 1890.

Of the nineteen orations, lectures, speeches, and addresses enshrined in the first volume, seven are carefully prepared orations and addresses on educational subjects, and to our mind, judged by oratorical and literary standards, with the possible exception of the first, they are the very best of them all. There is a certain looseness of construction, a lack of concentration of thought and expression, in his earlier orations. But these "are of imagination all compact." They treat of the ever important relations, never more important to the commonwealth than now, of scholarship to life. The duty of the American scholar to politics and the times, the public duty of educated men, the leadership of educated men, the spirit and influence of the higher education, the higher education of women, the University of the State of New York, education and local patriotism, these vital topics were all treated in the masterly manner of which he alone of the regents of our memory was capable. For, with the exception of the first, they were all delivered at institutions of higher and secondary education after he was elected regent. We wish that his publishers might issue these seven orations and addresses in a separate volume. They would make one of the best educational books of the year, worthy of a place in the library of every teacher who desires to connect his thought and his work, through moral influence and intellectual elevation, vitally with the life of the state, the highest object of united earthly human endeavor. Their historical worth, their literary grace and charm, their inspirational influence, the high level of discussion give them a value that is more than ephemeral. They will endure as long as the memories of those who were so fortunate as to hear them, as long as the subjects of which they treat continue to have a necessary application to the manifold and pressing needs of our American life. They stir the soul of the scholar as the old ballad of Percy and Douglas moved the heart of Sir Philip Sidney "more than with a trumpet." They make him feel the full force of the orator's suggestion, that he ought to be in touch with the interests of to-day, that he ought not to cease to be a citizen or a man, but that he ought to connect his scholarship, as Milton did, with life. He seems ever to be inculcating the great lesson of Wordsworth's noble ode: "Learn by a mortal



yearning to ascend towards a higher object." And this is the open secret of the power of every true teacher, the test of the real value of any institution. One recalls the words of Burke, the spirit of which breathes from every page of this noble volume: "But, if we make ourselves too little for the sphere of our duty; if we do not stretch and expand our minds to the compass of their object; be well assured, that everything about us will dwindle by degrees, until at length our concerns are shrunk to the dimension of our minds."

Nor do these orations and addresses lack an educational suggestiveness more direct. They abound in a sententious wisdom that is truly edifying if not pedagogical. The excellent index to the first volume contains over thirty references under the word education. There are sentences that have the force of maxims: "Education is the entrance of the soul into its rightful dominion of intelligence." "To teach a child to read is not to teach him to read with profit." "The constitution of the United States is the work of American scholars." "If American scholarship is not in place it is in power." "A man can pay too high a price for money." "In literature it is a poor education which ends in accurate grammar and precision of metres instead of a love of letters." "Technical scholarship begins in a dictionary and ends in a grammar. The sublime scholarship of John Milton began in literature and ended in life." "You have no right to sophisticate your minds." "The highest gift of education is noble living, generous character, the spiritual delight which springs from familiarity with the loftiest ideals of the human mind, the spiritual power which saves each generation from the intoxication of its own success." Let the circumcised pedagogue beat that! For he is not a teacher, which is one outwardly; neither is that teaching, which is outward in the flesh; but he is a teacher which is one inwardly; and teaching is that of the heart, in the spirit, and not in the letter. Such a teacher was George William Curtis, still the spiritual Chancellor Emeritus of us all.

Mr. Curtis was senior regent when he was elected chancellor. He sat in the chair of Jay and Verplanck and Kent and had acted four years as vice-chancellor. He honored the office and dignified it. He attended the meetings faithfully, discharged the duties assigned him on committees, and exerted a great influence in promoting the growth and extending the usefulness of the state library. He came to the chancellorship in the fulness of his powers, and the influence of his lofty ideals and love of letters was felt profoundly during the period, all too brief, in which he occupied an educational position of great honor and dignity. His interest in the expanding work of the University was strong and tempered by a fine enthusiasm. He attested the value of the services of the regents from his own experience. He regarded the

University as an institution of vast powers and responsibilities, as the stimulating heart of a constantly enlarging and progressive educational life. He considered its greatest service not one of statistics and details, but one of moral influence and intellectual elevation. And that service found in him its finest and fullest expression in the splendid address in the Convocation of 1890 in which he expanded the minds of those who heard him to the compass of their object. "The grace of our summer is the literary festival," he began, serenely unconscious that the grace of the literary festival was shed abroad in the crowded senate chamber from the chancellor himself. That voice expressive of the rich depths of his own spiritual life where there was no divorce between intellect and spirit, who can forget it? "Fled is that music: do I wake or sleep?" "When a man lives with God," says Emerson, "his voice shall be as sweet as the murmur of the brook and the rustle of the corn." We heard the murmur of the brook and the rustle of the corn, and, like Wordsworth who listened to the song of The Highland Reaper, we bore the music in our hearts long after it was heard no more.

The educational ideal of Mr. Curtis was no doubt largely literary. Perhaps the best brief statement of it is in the Easy Chair essay on Commencement: "It is the celebration of the intellectual life." \* \* "But the deep and permanent charm is the consciousness of the infinite worth and consolation of letters." And it was this infinite worth and consolation that attracted him, not the elegant trifling, the purple patches, the mere millinery, the excellent foppery of the world of letters with which he was too often identified by the popular mind. Roscoe Conkling, the Apollo of his party, let fly a bitter shaft tipped with the venom which he used so freely, an epithet which increased this unjust conception of Mr. Curtis. Edward Everett Hale protested earnestly against his being regarded chiefly as a dainty man who valued especially the arts of expression. There is nothing in his orations and addresses to justify this popular judgment. He was a man of deep and strong convictions and had the courage of them. His educational service was truly one of moral influence and intellectual elevation.

On the relations of the state to education he held decided opinions. He thought it a delusion that the concern of the state begins and ends with the primary school. The public good sense "not a rigid theory of the limited function of the state must determine the limits of instruction." He praised the appropriation of the legislature for the system of University extension and considered no recent legislation upon education more significant and important. But whatever view he took the man was more than his theme, he put his character into it, he kept a steadfast gaze on the eternal interests of the soul. May we not without exaggeration apply to him the words that close his tribute to Emerson: "Happy

teacher whose long and lovely life illustrated the dignity and excellence of the truth, old as the morning and as ever fresh, that fidelity to the divine law written upon the conscience is the only safe law of life for every man"?

O. B. Rhodes

Adams, N. Y.

*How to Study and Teach History.* With Particular Reference to the History of the United States. By B. A. HINSDALE, PH. D., LL. D. New York: D. Appleton & Co. pp. xxii+346.

One of the latest acquisitions of the *International Education Series*, is Professor Hinsdale's *How to Study and Teach History*. The title is not strikingly novel; neither is there anything in the book alarmingly radical or revolutionary. The work is a straight forward setting forth of the value and scope of the study of history, with practical suggestions as to method. The author has also placed a large field of literature under contribution, and in small compass presents the results not only of his own study and experience, but also of prominent educators and historians. The book is therefore of real value, not only to the teacher of history but to the student as well.

The question whether history should have a place in the educational curriculum, is no longer in the courts. It has taken us here in America some time to discover the old world. The doctrine of evolution is as important to the student of history and to the student of natural science. So long as American educators acquiesced in the popular conviction that we owe the natives of the old world little and have still less to expect from them; that they rather are our debtors having everything to learn from us, it was difficult to impress upon university boards or even university faculties, that outside of the barest outline, European history had much for the American student. The landing of Mary Chilton on Plymouth Rock was of far more importance in the progress of the world, than the landing of William and his fighting barons on the Pevensey coast in 1066. The wars of Pequods and Naragansetts, or the interminable palavers of Mohawks and Dutchmen were of far more importance in an educational way, than the majestic strifes of Roman pope and German emperor or the wrestle of the commons of France with their feudal lords for civic liberty.

We have now, however, at the close of the fifth century after Columbus, discovered the old world. We of the new world are neither the last nor the greatest creation of Omniscient Wisdom. Omnipotence has not after all exhausted itself in the creation of the "universal Yankee nation". All the generations of men have not wandered into darkness, that we alone might have light. Our place is not before the footlights with the audience

but on the stage with the players. We are not the centre of the circle, but only a small arc of an exceedingly great circumference, that sweeps away behind us into eternities that are past, and away before us into eternities that are to come.

The history of the old world, it is now recognized, has a grave significance for the American student. Our own history is little and insignificant, compared with that greater field beyond the Atlantic. And yet, as we are the heirs of all the past, the youngest born and yet the eldest of nations, that old world history is also our history—our pre-natal history if you please. America is great, but the world outside of America is greater. America has a noble future, but the race, of which America after all is only a fragment, has a nobler future. Nor is it too much to say, that any accurate comprehension of what we are, any sense of the possibility of the future, is unattainable without a knowledge of the past history of the European society,—our own history before the days of Columbus.

Moreover, there are other pleas to be made for the larger interpretation of the term history as found in our curricula, and not of least importance, is the direct educational value of the action upon mind and character of contact with great, true souls in the struggles and in the achievements of the past. Nor are the failures of the past without instruction, or wholesome influence. If in some way or other, the first chapters of Professor Hinsdale's work on the educational value of the study of history, could be brought into contact with the wingless minds of some faculties, a lasting obligation would be conferred upon the teachers of history, who through years have been struggling to obtain a proper recognition for this subject in college and preparatory school.

It is not enough, however, that the teacher have in mind the general object of the study of history. He must also place before himself some definite and specific object which he seeks to attain with any given class and in any given topic. This object will be determined by the age, progress, and even number of pupils. The means within the teacher's grasp, library facilities for instance, his own previous training, and attainments, time at the teacher's disposal not only in class work but for his own private study will also enter into the solution of the problem. The clear apprehension of this special object, will go a long way in determining the method which the teacher will adopt in any given case.

In this connection, it is certainly to be deprecated that in accordance with our American fondness for large things, there is a tendency to introduce more advanced methods, and more advanced subjects by immature teachers to immature pupils. Thus the "*seminar*" turns up in strange places." The protest of this author is timely. Such teaching will not only fail to teach history

but must also dissipate the intellectual strength of the student, and disgust him with both teacher and subject.

All methods therefore are not equally good. Some as the "topical method", so-called, are to be ruled out entirely. Other methods are good at certain stages of the student's progress, but are to be condemned out of proper time and place. The "seminary method" always sounds well,—to those who do not know what the seminary is. For graduate work, it is an ideal method, but for less advanced pupils it is perilous, to say the least. It certainly ought not to be introduced by teachers, who themselves have not had some practical training in research. It is too often resorted to by teachers, under the mistaken idea, that in this way the students will do most of the work and least will be exacted of the teacher. Yet no method is so exacting upon the teacher or requires so much in the way of general and special preparation.

Of the utmost importance is it therefore, that the teacher take a practical view of his position. He should study his limitations and adapt himself and his methods accordingly. In this connection, the suggestions of Professor Hinsdale relative to elementary instruction are invaluable.

The object of the present writing is not criticism but rather to call attention to an exceedingly valuable book. One might wish that some lines had been cut deeper, for example, that even more emphasis had been placed upon civil or political history, as the peculiar province of the teacher of history, while the history of literature, or of art and architecture, or of philosophy and religion should be left to the departments concerned. More emphasis might also have been placed upon the use of original documents, and the necessity of bringing the student face to face with the sources, that he may gain his knowledge first hand. But perhaps for the present at least, this is expecting too much of the teacher in the way of training, or scholarly ability. Too many teachers have no such knowledge of themselves. It would puzzle them, perhaps, even to name the chief sources of a period through which they have conducted classes for years. One also feels like raising a question as to the author's estimate of the value of the historical novel; or of the relative merits for the purposes of historical study, of such writers as Freeman and Macaulay, or Froude and Stubbs. In the author's comparison of these writers, there seems to be a lurking taint of the idea, that only that is valuable in education which is interesting. But in scientific research, what is meant by this word *interesting*? To one imbued with the spirit of the true student, the driest fact that leads to the discovery of truth, is interesting. The student of history,—and the teacher should always be a student,—who is not drawn to his work, fascinated by it, for its own sake, for the truth's sake; but who must have his work tempered by the rosy

glow from some brilliant imagination other than his own, before he can be interested, is as unfitted for the study of history as a blind man for the study of astronomy. To say the least, some of us have been in the habit of calling such writers as Freeman, Stubbs, Waitz, and others that might be mentioned, historians, while Froude, and Scott we have relegated to the world of polite literature. They are brilliant and useful in their way, but about as helpful to the student of history as colored glasses to a biologist. Macaulay to be sure, reigns in a limbo all his own, where the two worlds meet. He certainly belongs both to history, and to literature, but to the searcher along the dark ways of the past, a light so dazzling that it blinds, is surely not the safest guide.

B. S. Terry

University of Chicago

*The Private Life of the Romans.* By HARRIET WATERS PRESTON and LOUISE DODGE. The Students' Series of Latin Classics. Boston: Leach, Shewell, & Sanborn, 1893.

The conception of this book was an exceedingly happy one. It is a symptom of the growing tendency in our schools and colleges to emphasize the humanistic as opposed to the formal side of classical studies. Moreover it is a recognition of the necessity for an orderly and systematic study of the subject of private antiquities, as opposed to the chance gleanings of cursory reading.

The execution too of the book has much to commend it. We recognize the same lucidity of expression and charm of style which have won admiration for the other literary work of these gifted and accomplished women. Yet with all this it is questionable whether they have not made a mistake in giving us a compilation from Marquardt and Friedländer instead of the mature fruit of a profounder study of the whole field of which they treat. The book, as it is, will undoubtedly be useful and stimulating; yet we miss that sureness of touch and accuracy in details, which are so important in a book intended for school and college use. Minor slips are frequent and some serious errors occur.

Thus the cut of a "bath from an ancient painting" given on p. 49 ill becomes a book which is professedly based on Marquardt. It is Marquardt's merit to have exposed the fraudulent character of this illustration, and to have shown that it goes no further back than a sixteenth century MS.

On p. 64 the *toga praetexta* is described as "a simple woollen tunic (!) with a broad purple stripe (*clavus latus*) down the front." Of course the toga was not a tunic, nor was the *toga praetexta* distinguished by a purple stripe down the front, but on the contrary by a purple border, as is correctly stated on p. 12. The same confusion of toga and tunic is continued on p. 65 by reference to

an unheard-of *tunica praetexta*, and appears also on p. 12, where the *toga praetexta* is again described as "a simple tunic."

On p. 53 *mola salsa* is explained as salted cakes. It was in reality salted meal used for sacrifices.

On p. 141 the brigand Felix Bulla is said to have flourished in the reign of Septimius Severus, "i. e. to say in the middle years of the third century." Septimius Severus died in 211, and Felix was executed in 204.

In the foot-notes to pp. 72, 73 reference is made to the Eugubian tables as written in undecipherable characters and "probably containing records of *hospitia publica*, dating from Etruscan or even Pelasgic times." It certainly is no secret that these tables are not undecipherable, but are written in Umbrian and long since yielded to rational interpretation. They have nothing to do with *hospitia publica*.

On p. 33 the *fauces* of the house are spoken of as "two narrow passages" flanking the *tablinum*. In reality there was but a single passage.

Misprints and false quantities are somewhat numerous considering the compass of the book. I have noted: p. 5, (Lucius Aemilius) Publius for Paulus; p. 6 Oliper for Olipor; p. 10 *coemtio* for *coemtio*; p. 13 *Quādo*; p. 14 *Fescennina* for *Fescennini*; *deductio* for *-io*; p. 18 *conclamatō*; p. 25 *puticuli*; p. 37 Baths of Caracallus; p. 67 *villicus* for *villicus*; p. 70 *pedisequi*; p. 88 *pipperatum*; p. 85 *allex* (thrice) for *allex*.

On p. 140 *ass* for *as* becomes doubly amusing when coupled with the reference to its use as payment for the provender of a mule.

A second edition ought to accord several topics more generous treatment, e. g., slavery, marriage, and the status of women. Chapters too might be added on the games of the Circus and Coliseum, also on the stage. If it should be felt necessary to keep the book within present limits, the long chapter on agriculture, which occupies a fifth of the book might be at least curtailed.

Chas. E. Bennett

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## NOTES

The dedication exercises of the M. P. Coburn library of Colorado college were held on the 14th of March. The address was delivered by President Harper, of the University of Chicago. The new library building is a beautiful structure and a credit to the educational institutions of Colorado.



Kingsley's *Westward Ho!* in an abridged edition makes a very pretty and attractive volume in Macmillan's School Library of books suitable for supplementary reading. It is a book of 252 pages in clear, well-leaded print on good paper, and is a very successful example of cheap book-making. (Price 50 cents.)

The Executive Committee of the National Educational Association announce that the next meeting of the National Educational Association will be held at Asbury Park, New Jersey, July 6-13, 1894,—the Trunk Line Association having granted the usual half rates, plus two dollars, (membership fee,) with extension of tickets for return to September 1st.

In the March number of the SCHOOL REVIEW Professor Disney, in discussing the Organization of Secondary Education in England mentioned the probable appointment in the near future of a Royal Commission on the subject. It is interesting to note that since the article was published the Royal Commission has actually been appointed and is now holding its preliminary sittings.

A daintier volume than *Shakespeare's Comedy of the Tempest* in *The Temple Shakespeare* seldom comes to our desk. (Macmillan & Co., New York, publishers, 45 cents.) The text is that of the Cambridge edition. The preface, glossary, and notes are by Israel Collancz, M. A. An engraving of Shakespeare from the First Folio forms the frontispiece. Best of all the little book has the rare fragrance of a refined and graceful love of letters.

Messrs. D. C. Heath & Co., have recently issued an edition of the first four books of Goethe's *Dichtung und Wahrheit*, edited by Dr. C. A. Buchheim. There is an introduction of twelve pages. The text fills 198 pages, and the notes 108 more. The name of the editor is a sufficient guarantee of the quality of the work, and it is worthy of note that he remarks in the preface: "The annotation of the present work has required more thought, study, and research on my part than any of my former editions of German Classics." The volume is well printed and very attractive in appearance.

Easily first among College publications is *The Harvard Graduates' Magazine*. Noteworthy articles in the March number are "Francis Parkman" (with portrait), by James Schouler, '59; "Radcliffe College," by J. B. Warner, '69; "The Harvard Observatory in Peru," by Professor W. H. Pickering. Professor M. H. Morgan writes on "The Latin Play," and there is by the editor a sketch of the late secretary of the University, Frank Bolles, which is accompanied by a portrait. While the magazine appeals primarily to the graduates of Harvard, it covers so wide a range of subjects that it cannot fail to be of interest to all who would take note of the progress of university life in this country.

## CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE

*Education Not a Science.* By J. M. D. MEIKLEJOHN. Journal of Education, London, March, 1894.

The strongest educative powers given to man are Religion, Literature, Art, and Politics. Now, religion may be treated historically, but it cannot, in my conviction, be treated scientifically: the feelings that belong to it lie deeper and rise higher than any scientific observation can go, and they are so intimately entwined with that unknown and unknowable element called personality that you cannot, under any circumstances, inquire fully into them. "It is higher than heaven, what canst thou know? It is deeper than hell, what canst thou do?"

Literature is another educative force which cannot be handled scientifically. It is true that there are parts of it, territories lying on its outskirts, that can be explored in a scientific fashion. For example, the scientific inductions that have been made of Shakespeare's rhymes have enabled scholars to set the plays in their proper chronological order.

But a false application of science to literature is to be seen in a book lately published in connection with the University Extension movement. In that astonishing work we have the history of English literature mapped out into the "Sympathetic Age", the "Sententious Age", the "Age of Gaiety", the "Serious Age", and so on; and we have diagrams to show how the Romantic Drama in England was built up in cubes and parallelograms; other diagrams to show how the faculty of Pope developed from F to M into S (F=Fancy, M=Moralizing, S=Satire); and another to show how Sir Walter Scott consists of exactly equal parts of "the Dramatic, the Humorous, and the Psychological". Scientific physiologists tell us that poetry is a secretion of the smaller intestines; but no scientific physiologist has ever gone so far as the author of this book in showing how authors or periods are built up or manufactured. This is not life; it is not criticism; it is the putrescence of "scientific method." One might address it in the words of De Musset: "Tout est grand; tout est beau; mais on meurt dans votre air."

The spirit of literature is just the spirit of the highest human life; and the problem how to introduce the great wealth of our own literature to the masses of the young in our schools is a problem of the highest educational importance, which can receive no aid from scientific inquiries or scientific considerations. *To make the masses in our English schools genuinely fond of the best literature, is a problem to be solved not on scientific lines, but in a quite simple and practical way, that is, by introducing to schools as teachers men and women who are themselves fond of the best in our literature.*

Education is not a science. It is something much better; it is an art. Now, if you will look into the relation of art to science, you will find that no art possessed by man gets any aid from science, except on its outermost borders. For example, the art of painting receives aid from science in its endeavour to find out what are the most lasting pigments; but it cannot train artists in the selection of colours. That is a part of his profession which the artist must himself learn by living and loving observation, by comparison, by discussion with his brother artists; and I think that this analogy gives the relation of psychology to education. Psychology, that is, the psychology of the growing mind, does help the teacher in his conduct of the earlier years of instruction. But it can carry the teacher only up to a certain point; and, as soon as the learner begins the study of a subject, such as language, history, or a literary work, the guiding clue of psychology is given up, and the learner has to trust himself to the guidance of a teacher who knows his way about in the subject. And the teacher who knows his way about in the subject is the person who can best lay down the best method of teaching it.

O. B. R.

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## FOREIGN NOTES

### MOTHERS AND DAUGHTERS.

*England. Journal of Education, (London,) March, 1894.*

It would seem sometimes as if we could never do anything in England without first getting up a scare. Elementary education had its turn a little while ago; more lately it was naval defence; and now it is the turn of mothers and daughters. In consequence of some letters to the newspapers last autumn, Mrs. Crackanthorpe presented us with a somewhat lurid account of "The Revolt of the Daughters" in the January *Nineteenth Century*. The daughters are determined to have the full liberty of their brothers. They mean to see life—a beautiful euphemism, by the way, for becoming acquainted with the actual and possible depravities of human beings. They clamour for latch-keys, and insist on their right to go to music-halls, to read books which their mothers think undesirable, and generally to knock about town. They look upon their mothers as ignorant, foolish, and tyrannical. And the poor mothers gather in back rooms upstairs, obstinate, narrow-minded, and helpless. They are not wholly wrong, we are told, but they lack sympathy, they are obstinate, and, above all, they are helpless. Poor mothers!

## OUR VIEW.

Our own view of the matter it is scarcely necessary to set forth. We know that things are in a transition state. We believe in English mothers and English girls. We believe in education and in its results on the whole; and may we add that we speak from a fairly wide knowledge of both. Mistakes have been made, are being made and will be made; but we boldly trust the larger hope. We do not believe in the scare, and we do not believe that much of the wisdom of life is to be learnt in music-halls and by means of latch-keys. No doubt girls are sometimes too much cooped-up in domesticities, and are right in their demand for a larger field of activity. They need definite work to do, and more experience of the real work of the world and of real life, which is to be got, we assure them, in daylight and unaided by latch-keys. If we might venture on any advice we should say, to daughters as well as mothers, by all means keep yourselves young, and try to cultivate, both of you, somewhat more a sense of humour. Many of you are growing too intense. A sense of humour would often keep you from exaggerating the wrongness of things and your own fitness to set them right. Have patience, and you will be all the better able to get things right soon. And let us older folk help you in the work.

## TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

The London County Council, although one of the last among local authorities to move in the matter of technical education, is now getting to work with notable activity.

With regard to science teaching under the science and art department, the conditions under which it is offered by the County Council have thus been summarized:—(a) The invariable performance of practical, experimental, or laboratory work by the students themselves; (b) the discouragement of mere lecturing or book-work in physical science; (c) the abandonment of the practice of "farming" the classes to the teachers; (d) freedom to teachers to substitute other courses or other methods for those prescribed by the science and art department; (e) an increased provision of laboratories, and of the apparatus of equipment necessary for efficient instruction; (f) greater regularity of attendance; (g) a reduction of the high fees hitherto charged for certain subjects.

*O. B. Rhodes*

## PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

### PEDAGOGICS

- BRIGGS:** Industrial Training in Reformatory Institutions by Franklin H. Briggs, Chief of Department of Mental and Manual Instruction in the State Industrial School, Rochester. Size  $5\frac{1}{4} \times 8\frac{1}{4}$  in. pp. 13. Price 25 cents. C. W. Bardeen.
- DODGE:** Michigan School Law with Decisions by Superintendent of Public Instruction and Supreme Court. Compiled by Myron T. Dodge. Size  $5\frac{1}{4} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$  in. pp. 136. Peninsula Publishing Company, Saginaw, Mich.

### ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

- BURGESS:** See Harper.
- COLLANCZ:** See Shakespeare.
- GOYEN:** Key to Principles of Composition by P. Goyen. Size  $4\frac{1}{4} \times 7$  in. pp. 21. Price 60 cents. Macmillan & Co.
- GRAY:** Selections from the Poetry and Prose of Thomas Gray. Edited with an Introduction and Notes by William Lyon Phelps, A. M., Ph. D., Instructor in English Literature at Yale College. Size  $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$  in. pp. xi+170. Price \$1. Ginn & Co.
- HARPER:** Inductive Studies in English Grammar by William R. Harper, Ph. D., President of the University of Chicago, and Isaac B. Burgess, A. M., Associate Professor in the University of Chicago. Size  $5\frac{1}{4} \times 7\frac{1}{4}$  in. pp. 96. Price 40 cents. American Book Co.
- PHELPS:** See Gray.
- SHAKESPEARE:** Shakespeare's Comedy of the Tempest. With Preface, Glossary, etc., by Israel Collancz. Size  $4\frac{1}{4} \times 5\frac{1}{2}$  in. pp. 118. Price 45 cents. Macmillan & Co.
- SMYTH:** American Literature. By Albert H. Smyth, A. B., Professor of Literature in the Philadelphia High School. Revised edition. Size  $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$  in. pp. vi+84+22. Price 90 cents. Eldredge & Brother.
- THOMPSON:** The Ethica of Literary Art. The Cawley Lectures for 1893. Hartford Theological Seminary. By Maurice Thompson. Size  $5\frac{1}{4} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$  in. pp. 80. Hartford Seminary Press.

### MODERN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURES

- BERCY:** Short Selections for Translating English into French. Including a few examination papers. Arranged progressively, with explanatory and grammatical notes, by Paul Bercy, B. L., LL. D. Size  $5 \times 7\frac{1}{4}$  in. pp. ii+137. William R. Jenkins, Publisher.
- DEERING:** Heath's Modern Language Series. Schiller's Wilhelm Tell. Edited with an Introduction and Notes by Robert Walter Deering, Ph. D., Professor of Germanic Languages in Western Reserve University. Size  $5 \times 7\frac{1}{4}$  in. pp. xxxix+242. Price 65 cents. D. C. Heath & Co.
- DESAGES:** See Mérimée.
- DE WITT:** Modern French Series. II. Sur la Pente by Mme. De Witt (née Guizot) Annotated for schools and colleges with a Portrait and Biographical Sketch of the Author by Edward H. Magill, A. M., LL. D. Size  $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$  in. pp. 196. Christopher Sower Co.
- DU CROQUET:** Le Français par la Conversation par Charles P. Du Croquet. Size  $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$  in. pp. 186. William R. Jenkins, Publisher.
- FRANCE:** Modern French Series. III. La Fille de Clémentine, ou Le Grime de Sylvester Bonnard. Membre de L'Institut. By Anatole France. Ouvrage Couronné par L'Académie Française. Annotated, with Portrait and Biographical Sketch of the Author, by Edward H. Magill, A. M., LL. D. Size  $5 \times 7\frac{1}{4}$  in. pp. 209. Christopher Sower Co.
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## AN EXPLANATION

The Editors owe their subscribers an explanation and an apology in regard to the apparent failure to issue an index. In January the index and title page, making a pamphlet of eight pages, was prepared and printed. Instructions were given to the binder, who also attended to the mailing, to send a copy of this pamphlet to every subscriber with the February number. Inquiries continued to come in for the index. At first we thought that some had been lost in the mail. But as the inquiries continued, we investigated the matter, and found out that the binder had in some inexplicable way neglected the index entirely. The entire lot was found in the original package in the bindery only a few days ago. A copy is sent to every subscriber with this number. If any subscriber fails to receive one, we hope he will report the fact promptly, when another copy will be sent at once. We need hardly say that we deeply regret the annoyance caused our subscribers by this delay.



